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A Comparative Study

in England and China of Policies for and Approaches to

Citizenship Education in Schools

by

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ABSTRACT

Citizenship education has become a key concern and area of debate in recent years all around the world. In England citizenship education has been widely reviewed and rapidly developed over the past decade. At the same time China has also come to pay more and more attention to citizenship education in both the national and international context.

This dissertation firstly intends to review what citizenship has meant inside England and China. Secondly and importantly, I highlight the methodology and methods used in my study and discuss their advantages and disadvantages. Thirdly by comparing policies for citizenship education between England and China I seek to develop a clearer understanding of what differences and similarities have existed in citizenship education in both countries. Fourthly, I investigate approaches to citizenship education in two schools, one in England and one in China, and examine these from the perspective of pupils aged 15 to 17, as elicited through a questionnaire survey carried out in each school. Moreover I attempt to analyse the backgrounds for differences and similarities of citizenship education in both countries. Both countries face the challenges of citizenship education and try to overcome limitations and prepare for tomorrow's world. So it is useful to look beyond one's own country and widen the options open to a different society.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

In the area of education, there is an increasing interest in how citizenship education is carried on in different cultures and societies among educators and researchers. As a result, some comparative research on citizenship education has been carried out around the world. For example, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) made a contribution in twenty eight countries and the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER) undertook an international review of curriculum and assessment frameworks in sixteen countries. However, the mainland of China is seldom involved in such comparative studies. With the rapid development of economy and society in China, some educators and professionals have started to reconsider Chinese citizenship education and attempt to address some questions compared with western countries. In this context, as a research student, in relation to my own interest, this dissertation will highlight the comparison in policy for and approach to citizenship education between English and Chinese schools. In this section, I address my research questions first, then indicate the aims of my study, and finally show the structure of this dissertation so as to provide a clear vision.

Research Questions

There are three research questions highlighted here:

1. What differences and similarities have existed in national policies for citizenship education in English and Chinese schools?

2. What differences and similarities have existed in approaches to citizenship education in two case study schools, one in England and one in China?

3. What lies behind those similarities and differences?

Aims of my study

1. To develop a clearer understanding of policies for and approaches to citizenship education in English and Chinese schools, through the comparison of differences and similarities.

2. To explore the backgrounds for differences and similarities of citizenship education in both countries.

3. To attempt to conduct a comparative study on this specific area in citizenship education.

Structure

This dissertation will be structured into six chapters excluding this introduction.

1. Firstly, I concentrate on literature review of what citizenship has meant in each country of England and China through looking back at the process of historical development of citizenship and citizenship education in both countries.

2. Secondly, I outline the methodology and methods that will be used in my particular study, and discuss their advantages and disadvantages.

3. Thirdly, I embark document analysis and questionnaire analysis.

4. Fourthly, I conduct a comparative analysis of policies for and approaches to citizenship education in schools between England and China.

5. Next, I explore the backgrounds to those differences and similarities.

6. The final chapter provides conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review

2.1 What is Citizenship?

'Important social and moral concepts always get defined in different ways by different groups for different purposes. They are what a philosopher has called essentially contested concepts' (Crick, 2000:3). Citizenship is no exception as an important social and moral term. In order to have a clear understanding of the meanings of citizenship, I will review the historical development of citizenship and introduce the different meanings in England and China.

2.1.1 Historical development of Citizenship in England

Over many years the concept and status of citizenship have gathered a variety of interpretations. 'The concept of citizenship is highly debatable and problematic and has seen its definition change over time' (Van Steenbergen, 1994:3). In the next section, I will go back further to see its origins particularly in ancient Athens and Rome and its development.

Citizenship in the western tradition

The idea of citizenship came into being many centuries ago. Generally, citizenship could be said to have begun in Ancient Greece. Ward Whipple (2005) reports that in the ancient city-state of Athens, citizenship was only granted to males of certain classes. Citizenship was also granted to a few foreigners and freed slaves. Citizenship meant that a man could vote, hold office, serve on committees and juries, and give military service. He was also expected to share the work of government. Women, slaves, and practically all foreigners

were protected under the law but had few of the rights and privileges of Athenian citizens. Riesenberg (1992:81) suggested that 'the history of citizenship began with Solon.' Solon (died 559 B.C.) was the lawmaker of Athens, who stressed that the interest of the community must come before one's class or clan.

At the time of the Greek city-state, Plato (427 B.C.-347 B.C.) and Aristotle (384 B.C.-322 B.C.) defined citizenship in terms of privilege and status. 'Plato's ideal state is an aristocracy, a Greek word which means rule by the best' (Hooker, 1996), which probably means that the best of the state gave the rules and the others were ruled. Aristotle's definition was 'the good citizen should know and have the capacity both to rule and be ruled, and . . . (that) is the virtue of a citizen' (Riesenberg, 1992:84).

In ancient Rome, citizenship was also important. 'Roman citizenship was extended to foreign soldiers serving in the army and to men of conquered lands. By A.D. 212 almost all of the men in Roman provinces, except slaves, were citizens' (Whipple, 2005).

Historically, in Greece and Rome, there are two different concepts of citizenship. The conceptual definition of citizenship in Greece was based on allegiance and service to the state, which gave us participatory citizen democracy. The definition of citizenship in Rome included the rights and privileges of being a citizen, and also involved the responsibilities of citizenship, which gave us more universal citizenship.

As western civilization developed and Christianity began to spread in the Western World and became more organized and influential within the Roman Empire, the concept of citizenship also changed. Christianity demanded a different kind of loyalty. Instead of loyalty to the community or service to the state, Christianity emphasized loyalty to one's private self and to the church community (Stumpf, 1966).

In the Middle Ages, with the building and spreading of the feudal system through Western Europe, people were placed in a firm hierarchy. 'Millions of slaves worked for lords. The lords owed their allegiance to overlords. The overlords in turn were controlled by the king. In this system the king and nobles, rather than any government independent of these rulers, gave the people rights and privileges' (Whipple, 2005). But as some kings made many small states into nations, people began to own their allegiance to the king and feel that they should take pride in their whole country. It is from the 1600's that 'people started thinking of themselves as citizens of a nation as well as the loyal subjects of their king' (Whipple, 2005).

Following Italian jurists and writers of the Renaissance, a new term 'civic republicanism' emerged. It described societies where the public had rights in some aspects such as the vote and also had a civic duty to do (Crick, 2000:5).

Although there existed different development situations in European countries once the Roman Empire was destroyed, the ideal of free citizenship endured and many western countries concerned of citizenship as involving the nature of the rights and responsibilities of the citizen.

Citizenship development in England

Originating from the western tradition, the concept of citizenship in England was used almost always in a constitutional, legal sense as Bernard Crick (2000) explained: British citizens were seen as subjects of the Crown entitled to rights as established in law by ministers of the Crown (p6). All subjects of the Crown should think of themselves as citizens with rights to be exercised as well as agreed responsibilities.

In the eighteenth century, citizenship was fundamentally concerned with individual rights

and freedoms, such as the right to own property, personal liberty, freedom of speech and thought, religious freedom and justice. This strand of citizenship was called 'Civil citizenship' in T.H. Marshall's famous essay *'Citizenship and Social Class'* (1952).

But in the nineteenth century education for citizenship was identified with political trends. T.H. Marshall (1952) described it as 'Political citizenship', which brought the rights of participation in politics and the right to play a role in the political process.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Frederick Swann's *Primer of English Citizenship* was published and started to focus on building a rational of morality for the young because of a perceived decline in the moral standard of society. The decline in social norms was 'especially marked among the young and manifested itself in anti-social behaviour, increased truancy and exclusion from schools, high teenage pregnancy levels and increased alienation from the political processes of democratic society' (Arthur & Wright, 2001: 6). From then on, more attention was put on a broader term 'social citizenship'.

Marshall (1952) developed the concept of social citizenship built on the previous two concepts 'Civil citizenship' and 'Political citizenship'. He said that 'by the social element I mean the whole range from the right to a modicum of economic welfare and security to the right to share to the full in the social heritage and to live the life of a civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society' (p10-11).

Marshall's definition has become the starting point for the subsequent discussion on citizenship. The Commission on Citizenship was set up in 1988 by the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Rt Hon Bernard Weatherill. It aimed to encourage, develop and recognise Active Citizenship within a wide range of groups in the community, both local and national. In 1990, it published a report *Encouraging Citizenship*, which supported Marshall's definition and advocated social citizenship through schools, voluntary efforts

and public services. In the same year, the National Curriculum Council (NCC) published guidance for schools on how to develop education for citizenship and advocated participative citizenship; it also made provision for cross-curricular themes, one of which was on citizenship. But citizenship remained a non-statutory and optional part of the school curriculum.

Lynch (1992) argued that there have been many changes in the whole world during the twentieth century, so it was necessary to re-examine the concept of citizenship. In 1997 the Advisory Group on Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools was set up, chaired by Professor Sir Bernard Crick. The report provided by the Group in 1998 re-examined the concept and expressed three strands for citizenship education.

Those three strands are social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. The first strand stresses that good citizenship involves an individual's sense of social and moral responsibility. The second strand focuses on positive involvement in and service to the life and concerns of both the school community and the communities beyond it. The third strand is as 'an understanding of the institutions of representative government and the various methods through which opinion can most effectively and healthily be expressed' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:10). These three strands are all considered in the context of local, national and global levels.

Despite the clear three strands and the definition of citizenship education they have put forward, some questions are still raised: particularly, how citizenship education should best be approached, whether through existing curriculum subjects such as history, geography and English, or as a separate curriculum component, or by other means; how best to prepare young people for their roles and responsibilities as adult citizens in the modern society. Actually, those questions have been concerned in many countries and have led many countries to review and rethink their approaches to citizenship education

in both formal and informal settings. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) started to conduct a Civic Education Study in 1994 across countries, which was known as the Citizenship Education Study in England. The study was the largest of its kind ever undertaken involving 28 countries and having two phases. The main aim of the study was to identify and examine in a comparative framework the ways in which young people are prepared to undertake their role as citizens. The study put one focus on schools. The school focus was not only limited to the curriculum settings, but also investigated the climate of the school and opportunities for discussion in classrooms and students' participation in school life. Phase 1 of the study in England was funded jointed by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). Phase 2 in England was funded by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). Although the study aimed to provide international comparisons, the data have also allowed for detailed and national-level analysis. The findings have important implications for policy-makers, curriculum developers, teachers and researchers in citizenship education. The findings of the study in England stimulated discussion among policy makers, curriculum developers and teacher educators on the development of effective citizenship education for all young people. After the study, we noticed that citizenship became a statutory requirement in secondary schools in England from September 2002.

From a historical and developmental perspective, compared with Europe, citizenship in Asia, especially in China, has different roots and has experienced and developed through different ways. I will explain this in next section.

2.1.2 Historical development of Citizenship in China

Some researchers have explored the roots of citizenship and citizenship education in China. They thought that the roots were in the late nineteenth century. For example, Chen Yangguang(2002) indicated this point in his article *Citizenship education in Chinese schools*. In order to have a clear understanding of the background of citizenship and

citizenship education in China, I would like to go back to the ancient period.

In Ancient China

'The evolution leading to the establishment of the Chinese empire is undoubtedly one of the great events in world history' (Brooks, 2000). In ancient China, there were three Holy Dynasties 'Xia, Shang, and Zhou'. Marxist historians define the Xia and Shang economy as that of 'a slaveholder society' (Chinaknowledge, 2002). The kings had a specified clan system in which each prince and cousin had a special title with an appropriate domain. The miners, casters, artisans, dog keepers and so on were divided by the hundreds and had each officer with special duties. Even recording the predictions required a simple bureaucracy, which can show the beginning of the traditional Chinese state (Chinaknowledge, 2002). It is similar to ancient Greek and Rome with different classes existing, and the lower classes having the lower rights, with slaves having few rights.

The first kings of Zhou (11th. cent. -221 BC) provided their relatives with large domains that later became kingdoms themselves: the central government lost its authority, the "feudal system" (fengjian zhidu) similar to the Western Middle Age system disintegrated (Chinaknowledge, 2002). From then on, Zhou was divided into the Spring and Autumn period (770-403 BC) and the Warring States period (403-221 BC). These two periods are regarded as the golden age of Chinese philosophy. Many thinkers and intellectuals came along during these two periods, such as Confucius, Mencius, and Xunzi. They not only contributed to the thoughts of traditional culture, but also had great influence on political strategies. 'Confucius basically believed that moral men make good rulers, and that virtue is one of the most important properties that an official can have. He also believed that virtue could be attained by the proper way of behaving' (http://www.travelchinaguide.com/intro/history/zhou/eastern/). He did not stress what rights and duties people should had, but put priorities on virtues that good people should have in society. His thoughts were later developed by Mencius. 'Mencius tried to

convince rulers who should cultivate moral perfection in order to set a good example to the people and the ruler who governed benevolently would earn the respect of the people' (http://www.travelchinaguide.com/intro/history/zhou/eastern/). Xunzi, one of Confucius' disciples and a legalist, believed that man would look out for himself first and was therefore basically evil. Consequently, legalists designed a series of draconian laws that would make the nation easier to control. The fundamental aim of both Confucianism and Legalism was the re-unification of a divided China, but they took different approaches. Confucianism depended on virtue and natural order, while Legalism used an iron fist.

E. Bruce Brooks (1998) in his article *Toward Citizenship* indicated that 'despite obvious differences of detail, I think that it is valid to consider that by the end of the fourth century something akin to a national state was emerging in China, in theory and in actuality, and that it was in the process of reaching, with its commoner members, a sort of mutual accommodation for which the concept of "citizenship" may not be inappropriate...By the end of the fourth century, we may no longer validly speak of a politically subject population of rural producers. We are instead entitled to regard the role of that population as being, at least incipiently, one of citizenship.' (Available at: http://www.umass.edu/wsp/conferences/lectures/citizenship.html).

At the end of Warring States, Qin, based on the reforms and improvements, quickly became a powerful state; Yingzheng (Qin Shihuang) expedited his project of annexation and finally, in 221 BC, united China and established a unified, multi-national, autocratic and power-centralized state. From then on, China started a feudal monarchical system that lasted for over 2000 years.

In modern China (1840-1949)

Following the description of Chen Yangguang (2002) in his article *Citizenship education in Chinese schools*, I briefly explain the development of citizenship education in modern

China and recent era.

In the mid nineteenth century, China started its social transformation from an authoritarian society where its people were subjects of an absolute monarchy to the modern democratic concept of citizenship of a country.

When Britain became the strongest capitalist economy in western countries in the eighteenth century, China was still controlled by the Ching (Qing) Empire. With the expanding of Britain along with the western countries to the East, China gradually became a semi-colonial and semi-feudal society. Under the external pressure and influenced constantly by Western civilization and ideology and education values, new-style schools were built and provided a course named 'Character Cultivation' (Chen, 2002:2) based on Confucian classics. Although this course comprised some elements of civic education and reflected the dream of intellectuals who wanted to imitate the systems of the capitalist countries to improve politics and grant the people certain democratic rights, it was soon dismissed with the failure of the political reform of 1898.

In 1911, the revolution led by Dr Sun Zhongshan overthrew the Ching dynasty, and put an end to the feudal monarchical system that had lasted over 2000 years, opening the way to democratic politics. At that time in schools some specific requirements of citizenship were considered. The course was still called 'Character Cultivation' and stressed some requirements of citizenship, law and regulation. However, it soon met some practical problems and needed further innovation in civic education. In 1922, the original course 'Character Cultivation' was replaced with 'Civics Education' (Chen, 1992:35). The course was deeply influenced by Western ideology that respected individual participation in social life. To some extent, it satisfied those progressive intellectuals who believed that 'social equality could be achieved only by improving citizens' moral qualities through certain paths of Citizenship Education' (Chen, 2002:2).

However, citizenship education was soon used in schools as a means to justify and strengthen the rule of the Kuomingtang (Guomindang) and the course was replaced with 'Party Duty'. In 1937, the war with Japan started. The course began to train students to grasp political and economic and military knowledge, and to develop the skills to prepare for the war, and to become obedient to the Party. This character of citizenship education lasted until 1949.

In recent era

In 1949, very important in the history of China, the People's Republic of China was established. From then on, citizenship education aimed to educate young people to become heirs of proletarian revolution under the Communist rule. A new course entitled 'Politics' was used to implement citizenship education. It was clear that the course focused on political contents including Marxism, Leninism, the Chinese revolution and party policy. Over the years to 1955, the course was modified and added the knowledge of social science, political science, law and the constitution, patriotism and loyalty to Communism (Educational Science, 1984). It was notable that the course did not mention individuals' rights and entitlements.

Until 1965, through many years of effort, 'China accomplished its social transition and established its own concept of social citizenship, which emphasised loyalty rather than initiative, obligations rather than rights, commitments rather than freedom, and community rather than individualism' (Chen, 2002:4). From 1966 to1976, there was a difficult period called 'Cultural Revolution', in which there were little improvements in education and the country entered into the political struggle.

In 1978, China opened a new era with the economic reform. It was from this time that citizenship education began to identify the spiritual and moral development of youngsters and equip them with knowledge and skills, good mental and physical health,

self-discipline and a sense of responsibility. 'All people of the nation should be brought up as good citizens' (Deng Xiaoping, 1982). In 1986, an *Experimental Teaching Outline* was issued, in which citizenship education was divided into three levels. Firstly, it is to equip students with a basic knowledge of contemporary politics, the economy, social morality and the legal system. Secondly, it is to nurture them in good character, good behaviour and discipline. Thirdly, it is to encourage them to realise their role, function and responsibilities as good citizens (Education Science Press, 1986). In 1995, the *Handbook of Chinese Citizenship* was published and later the *Textbook of Chinese Citizenship* based on this handbook was published. The textbook systematically explained the general requirements of socialist citizenship and methods of achieving it.

At the present time, citizenship is understood in several associated ways in China. It is presented mainly as 'Ideology and Moral Education' in primary school and as 'Ideology and political education' in secondary schools. At the same time, it is embedded in several other subjects and implemented through cross-curricular themes and activities mostly organised by the Youth league (GongQing Tuan) and the Students' Union and through symbolic events like the national flag, the national anthem and the national emblem.

It can be seen above that over the last 50 years citizenship education in China combined political education, moral education and ideological education. Whereas 'citizenship education is almost equivalent to ideological and political education in the early years, the focus of citizenship education has become increasingly orientated towards personal moral qualities in recent years'(Lee, 2006:5).

It is obvious that the development of citizenship in China has shown the different ways from that in England, although they both have paid more attention on the importance of citizenship education in recent years. Also it is noticeable that several important international studies in civic and citizenship education conducted in recent decades, such as the largest Civic Educational Study undertaken by the International Association for the

Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) from 1994 and the project 'Civic Education in The Asia-Pacific Region' carried out from mid-1997, but compared with England, mainland of China did not show its attention to those kinds of studies.

2.2 The importance of citizenship

Seen from the historical development of citizenship in both countries, although the concept and value of citizenship varies from nation to nation, both countries have paid attention and given great importance to citizenship and citizenship education. Why do the concerns of different countries for young people focus on the same issues in education? The factors, which have accelerated governments' determination to enhance such education, are shown as below.

First, there is the need for the rapid development of economy and society. The world is experiencing the speedy growth of the economy, technology and globalisation. In particular, electronic technologies are increasingly embedding in the areas of living and working. In order to participate in the emerging new social reality, there is a need for a full understanding between politics, economy, culture and the public. Therefore, both countries have realised that citizens of tomorrow's world will need a range of knowledge, skills and understanding about becoming informed citizens to respond to tomorrow's fast changing prospect. In England, the Advisory Group on Education for Citizenship (2000:13) reported that all young adults face the challenge of living and working in the increasingly complex world of the 21st century, what they need is both the skills and the opportunities. In China, the economic reform has resulted in ideological changes. The government has reconsidered the term 'heirs to the proletarian revolution' and used the neutral term 'citizenship', and put emphasis on all-round development of young people.

Second, there is the need for the personal development of young adults. All young people need to develop in tomorrow's world and life. Whether they like it or not, they

live in the world and play a role in society at local, national and international levels. They need not only the development of their knowledge and skills, but also the development of their spiritual, moral, social and cultural understanding. For their development in the world and society, it is necessary to know their rights and duties as qualified citizens. But it is not sufficient and they also need to be aware that they should play an effective role and helpful part in the life of their schools, communities and wider world. In England, 'young people will be able to realise that full potential as active and effective members of society. Young people need not only training for jobs, but also training and education for life and the challenges' (Further Education Funding Council, 2000:12). In China, economic reform and ideological change have brought about the innovation of moral education and aroused the self-consciousness of people. As a result, present moral education stresses more attention on the cultivation of the individual's manners, behaviours, wishes, development and emotions.

Third, there is the need for catching up with the outside world. In the 1990s, a project was carried out to compare French and English children's notion of citizenship. The results clearly show that 'French children had a high level of pride in their national identity and culture and the idea of them being citizens was very much an everyday matter', and 'French schools have always had a statutory duty placed on them by the State to produce citizens who understand and respect the constitution and the values of freedom, equality and solidarity' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:7). So policy makers in England started to reconsider citizenship education and re-emphasise responsibility and duty, community membership and good citizens among the young. Additionally, a range of organisations, including the Citizenship Foundation, the Citizenship Institute, Community Volunteers service, the Advisory Group on Education for Citizenship and Council for Education in World Citizenship, were set up to promote discussion of policy on citizenship and implement citizenship education in schools. In China, citizenship and citizenship education have experienced several difficulties, and taken a long time to achieve self-identity and are trying to catch up the western countries. Since the implementation of the open-door policy, the government has established and constantly attempted to improve the democracy system and legal system. Importantly, policy makers

have been aware that democracy is an essential part of citizenship education and the construction of the legal system also needs the enhancement of citizenship education.

In short, citizenship and citizenship education appear to play a very important part in social life. After considering and discussing the internal and external factors, both countries have put an emphasis on citizenship and put some actions forward.

2.3 Implication of Citizenship Education in Schools

'Citizenship, like anything else, has to be learned; young people do not become good citizens by accident' (Commission on Citizenship, 1990:37). Young people need to be taught in schools, and also beyond schools. Schools are vital and fundamental areas for young people to learn citizenship. 'There is very little happening in schools to which citizenship education is not related' (Fogelman, 1991:50). Then, how do schools understand and carry out citizenship education? There are different requirements for students in citizenship between English and Chinese schools.

2.3.1 Implication of citizenship education in English schools

In England, citizenship has now been introduced as a statutory element at secondary school level (Key Stage 3 and 4) and as a part of a non-statutory element in primary schools, which has strengthened citizenship and personal and social education, and also resulted in the change of national curriculum and school curriculum. 'The Citizenship Order itself details the requirements that are to be met in all publicly funded schools throughout England' (Arthur & Wright, 2001: 8). It sets out the programmes of study. At Key Stage 3 and 4, the programmes of study define citizenship education around three strands as follows:

1. Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens.

2. Developing skills of enquiry and communication.

3. Developing skills of participation and responsible action.

At Key Stage 3, the Order contains a requirement for students to understand their rights and responsibilities at community and national level. Also, it requires students to know about various government institutions, both local and national, the workings of democracy and the criminal justice system. There is also a requirement for students to know about the work of voluntary groups and media in society, the ethnic and religious diversity of the United Kingdom and recognition of the global community. At Key Stage 4, the programme of study contains requirements for students to understand their rights and responsibilities and role in society and the criminal justice system; to recognise the diversity of national, regional, ethnic identities and the need for mutual respect; to know the importance of the economy and of taking part in an election and free press and media; to realise issues and challenges within the context of globalisation. The programme also contains the requirements for students to develop their skills of communication and participation, and the requirements to improve their skills of evaluation to others' experiences and opinions, and improve the skills of taking part in activities of schools.

The Order also sets out 'the way in which education *about* citizenship is attained as a result of education *through* citizenship' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:11). Education *about* citizenship is providing students with sufficient knowledge of national history and political life and structures of governments. Education *through* citizenship is helping students experience and attend activities in schools and communities to learn citizenship. In other words, the Order emphasises that the knowledge of citizenship is attained through the skills in citizenship.

The Citizenship Order is based on the work of the Crick Advisory Group. The Advisory Group stated three components of understanding citizenship education, which I mentioned above. The Order, indeed, reflects the first component 'social and moral

responsibility'. These two dimensions have to be experienced by students. A pupil's understanding and ability to make socially and morally effective decisions do not develop by themselves; rather they need knowledge, values and skills. 'Any education for citizenship must be compounded both of values and knowledge, as well as the skills' (Crick, 2000:109). Society expects teachers and schools to teach students moral and social values. Schools are a rich source of social and moral values for the students. Also, the Order places a priority on the second component 'community involvement'. Students should be taught to take part in the activities of schools and communities and know their responsibilities in the communities both inside and outside schools.

However, it seems that the Order does not put much attention on the third component 'political literacy'. Although the Order expresses the importance of understanding the role of the individual in democracy and the diversity of the country, regionality, ethicality and religion, political literacy is broader than political knowledge. Crick and Porter (1990) explained that a politically literate person would know what the main political disputes were about; what beliefs the main contestants had of them; how they were likely to affect him; and he would have a predisposition to try to do something about it in a manner at once effective and respectful of the sincerity of others. Schools might be aware of dealing with political literacy, but it is an area they might feel that can be dealt with easily through other subjects such as history and politics lessons. Also it is seen as easily assessable as it lends itself to knowledge tests but this in turn means that pupils may not experience political literacy in practice. In fact, 'students in England had greatest difficulty in answering items which addressed their knowledge about democracy and government, and young people also show much less interest in political parties, as well as in discussing political issues' (NFER, 2002: 7).

It is certain that headteachers and teachers and governors in schools need to reflect on the implication of citizenship education. Furthermore, no single approach can be relied on to deliver citizenship education. Thus, it is necessary and important to plan ways to carry out citizenship education and to consider what approaches are appropriate for their

students in relation to the implementation of citizenship education.

2.3.2 Implication of citizenship education in Chinese schools

'Schools are the most important and richest strategic institution of citizenship education' (Wang, 2005). At present, in Chinese schools citizenship education is not a statutory subject, but it has been reached through several subjects such as history, geography, literature and science. Also, it has been absorbed into education in other ways. Importantly, it is mainly implemented as 'Ideological and Moral Education' in primary schools and as 'Ideological and Political Education' (Ministry of Education, 2004) in secondary schools.

The curriculum of 'Ideological and Political Education' is based on the 'Agenda of Basic Education Reform' and 'the Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan (on trial)', and takes Marxism-Leninism, Mao Zedong ideology, Deng Xiaoping theory and 'Three Representations' as the instruction and guiding ideology. The requirements for students in secondary schools are to know that the Chinese Communist Party is the leader of Chinese characteristic socialism, to study general knowledge for achieving the socialistic modernization with Chinese characteristic, to identify and analyse and solve issues through Marxism basic viewpoints and methods, and to improve their abilities in social life.

The curriculum stresses three aspects: knowledge, ability, and action to develop citizenship education. For knowledge, students need to understand the history, economy, culture and policy of contemporary China, and to understand law, to know the general knowledge for life. For ability, the requirement for students is the ability to make correct judgements and choices, to protect their own rights, and to use information technology; the ability of communication and cooperation, and problem solving. For action, students need to pledge allegiance to the country, to love the motherland, its people and society, to

love life and peace, to respect others, to take part in activities in the community, and to be glad to help people.

The curriculum of 'Ideological and Political Education' is divided into two parts in secondary schools. Those two parts are a compulsory core part and an optional part. In the compulsory part, the course includes four modules: (1) economic life, (2) political life, (3) cultural life, (4) life and philosophy. In the optional part, the contents are broader, including six modules: (1) general knowledge of scientific socialism, (2) general knowledge of economy, (3) general knowledge of national and international organization, (4) general knowledge of scientific thinking, (5) general knowledge of law, (6) citizen morals and ethics.

It is worth noting that citizenship education in China is to contribute to the all-round moral, intellectual, physical, and aesthetic development of the individual and promote worthy civic attitudes among young people. Jiang Zemin (the previous National Chairman of China) in recent years repeatedly pointed out that it was the basic task and goal to cultivate good citizens who have ideals, morality, intellectuality and discipline in the construction of spiritual civilization.

As seen above, the curriculum 'Ideology and Political Education', tries to meet the need of all-round development of young people. But, as the most important method of implementing citizenship education, it still emphasises knowledge and contents, and the ideal characteristics of persons, rather than the individual's manners, behaviour, wishes, rights and responsibilities. All-round development of young people is a high expectation of any education departments, which is an ideal aim, but it is difficult to achieve for all young adults. Those modules set in the programme have stressed the general knowledge and theories of politics, economy and culture, but lack practical contents and activities. It seems that the programme aims to teach all young adults to be all-round developed persons, but it may be to some degree not realizable.

2.4 Summary

Citizenship and citizenship education in both countries has experienced numerous difficulties in the past. Originated from the western traditions, citizenship in England experienced three phases: civil citizenship, political citizenship and social citizenship. Now with the rapid changes around the world, citizenship shifts its focus onto three strands: social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. In China, citizenship has its own ancient root and developed with a more political focus. Nevertheless, it is clear that both countries have come to acknowledge the importance of citizenship education within the national and international context. They have both been aware that there is the need to improve citizenship education for the rapid development of economy and society, for the personal development of young adults, and for catching up with the outside world. Also, they have both looked to the schools as the most important places to deliver citizenship education, although the concept of citizenship differs through time. They both approach citizenship through school curriculum or school activities. They are trying to give pupils the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels through school education.

CHAPTER 3: Methodologies and methods

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Brief introduction of methods of data analysis in this research

In order to achieve the aims and answer the questions posed in this dissertation, I decided to undertake a comparative study. A comparative study allows a focus on both educational values and practices through exploring the differences and similarities in different contexts. I will compare the policies for and approaches to citizenship education at two case study schools, one in England and one in China.

I use case study, document analysis and questionnaire surveys as techniques. The focus of the case study is to identify the policies for and approaches to citizenship education, and to explain the reasons behind the differences and similarities in two case study schools. The two case study schools chosen are secondary schools and the subjects chosen are pupils aged 15 to 17. I selected this age group sample because 15 to 17 years old young people are on the edge of entering adult life. They have all experienced citizenship education lessons in schools even though the contents and forms of the lessons vary from schools to schools and from country to country. The views of citizenship education from 15-17 year olds are probably clearer than those of younger students and the issues related to being a qualified citizen might also be of more concern to the society and to the pupils themselves. It is more imperative for them to have training for jobs and have education for life and the challenges of becoming an active and effective member of society.

The methods of data analysis used in the case study are document analysis and questionnaires. Using document analysis in this research aims to have an understanding

of policies for citizenship education in schools, while questionnaires are designed to get information on approaches to citizenship education. The documents selected focus on those materials used for teaching citizenship education or those that suggested ways and criteria for citizenship to be introduced into schools, at both national and school level. Basically, the analysis of documents involves curriculum settings, targets for citizenship education in schools, the contents of citizenship teaching and practical activities. Questionnaires conducted in this study provide insights into pupils' views about citizenship education. Following Ken Fogelman's (1991) points of approaches to citizenship, and at the same time, referring to the survey (2002) of citizenship in secondary schools throughout England and Wales, the analysis of questionnaires and interpretation illustrate three main aspects including the ethos of the school, organization of the school and participation in the school, and activities of the school.

After the analysis of documents and questionnaires, the views and points from the analysis come together for the comparative analysis in next step to provide a clear picture of differences and similarities in policies for and approaches to citizenship education between two case study schools.

3.1.2 Approaches to research

Judith Bell (1993) in her book *Doing Your Research Project*, a guide for first-time researchers, says that 'it is perfectly possible to carry out a worthwhile investigation without having detailed knowledge of various approaches to or styles of educational research, but a study of different approaches will give insight into different ways of planning an investigation, and, incidentally, will also enhance your understanding of the literature' (p 5). So before conducting research, it is very useful to consider what kinds of approaches will be used in the research and what their advantages and disadvantages could be.

There are various approaches to education research. Quantitative research is defined as a study that aims to quantify attitudes or behaviours, measure variables, compare and point out correlations, and produce quantified and generalisable conclusions. It is most often conducted via a survey that must be representative so that the results can be extrapolated to the entire population studied. It requires the development of standardised and codifiable measurement instruments. Qualitative research differs from quantitative research in many ways: firstly, the data is usually gathered using less structured research instruments; secondly, the results provide much more detail on attitudes and behaviour and motivation, also offer in-depth understanding to the research questions; thirdly, the research is more intensive and more flexible; finally, the results are based on smaller sample sizes and the analysis of the results is much more subjective. Rossman and Wilson (1985:628) indicated that quantitative methods are useful for corroborating findings that are initially found using qualitative methods whilst qualitative methods can be used to provide richness or depth to quantitative findings. Although some researchers do either quantitative or qualitative research work, many researchers have suggested combining one or more research methods in one study, which could be called triangulation. Whether researchers use theoretical triangulation, data triangulation, investigator triangulation or methodological triangulation, their ultimate goal is to strengthen the validity and reliability of research results.

3.1.3 Qualitative research methods

As mentioned above, there are many differences between qualitative research and quantitative research. I would like to draw more attention on the characters of qualitative research. Elliot Eisner (1991:32-40) outlines the 'six features of a qualitative study', they are

'(1) Qualitative studies tend to be field focused. In education, those conducting qualitative research go out to schools, visit classroom, and observe teachers.

'(2) Qualitative research considers the self as an instrument. The self is an instrument that engages the situation and makes sense of it. This is done most often without the aid of an observation schedule; it is not a matter of checking behaviours, but rather of perceiving their presence and interpreting their significance.

'(3) A third feature that makes the study qualitative is its interpretive character. Interpretive here has two meanings: (a) Inquiries try to account for what they have given an account of. (b) Qualitative inquires aim beneath manifest behaviours to the meaning events have for those who experience them.

'(4) Qualitative studies display the use of expressive language and the presence of voice in the text.

'(5) A fifth feature of qualitative studies is their attention to particulars.

'(6) A sixth feature of qualitative studies pertains to the criteria for judging their success' (P 32-40).

The main advantages of qualitative research are producing more in-depth, comprehensive information, focusing on the perspective of individuals including schools, classrooms, observations of teachers and students, and exploring the dynamic nature of reality. Also, it uses subjective information to describe the context of the variables and the interactions of the different variables in the context. On the other hand, there are some disadvantages such as that subjectivity leads to difficulties in establishing the reliability of the information, the in-depth and comprehensive data collecting approach required limits the scope of the study and it is unavoidable to have researcher bias built in to some degree.

In my study, I attempt to use qualitative research to have an in-depth understanding of citizenship education in two target countries and provide a detail comparison of policies for and approaches to citizenship education. There are various qualitative research methods, such as ethnography, action research, grounded theory and case study research. 'A research method is a strategy of inquiry which moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions to research design and data collection' (Myers, 1997). The

choice of research method influences the way of data collection for researchers. I intend to use case study method in a comparative context. I am reviewing policies for and approaches to citizenship education in English and Chinese schools, with a focus on secondary schooling. This case study will illuminate the function of different policies for and approaches to citizenship education and how those policies and approaches influence citizenship education, and also it might produce new perspectives and raise some new issues. Moreover, this case study might show different characteristics due to the comparative context. Thus, this dissertation will introduce the method of comparative research before conducting the case study. Additionally, it might be worth noting that the findings of the small case study could be triangulated by a large-scale quantitative survey of a number of schools in both England and China using a questionnaire designed on the basis of the findings of the case study. Such a large-scale survey, however, lies outside the parameters of the current MPhil dissertation.

3.2 Comparative study

'There is no part of the world that does not need to modernize in the field of education. All countries are deeply concerned with difficult, controversial, educational policy reforms. This requires them to learn from wherever insightful experience might emerge. In my opinion this spells the end of development education, as we know it. It represents a new era in which all countries are borrowers and all are donors. This is a refreshing change' (Heyneman, 1999b). In the field of education, there is an increasing interest in how education is carried on in different cultures and societies among educators. As a result, comparisons have been made between countries in many fields of education. I shall attempt to make a comparison between citizenship education in English and Chinese schools.

3.2.1 What is comparative education?

Comparative study has a long history. When an international study on national education systems was first conducted, that was the beginning of comparative education. Comparative study might be seen as a method of data collection. More recently, the international agencies such as the World Bank have put emphasis on the collection and interpretation of statistical data across countries in order to provide a guide for policy makers through measuring different aspects of education.

In the field of comparative study, Sir Michael Sadler was a pioneer, who in 1900 made the famous Guildford speech on *How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?* He regarded comparative education from a broader context that involved cultural and social interpretation. In fact, it seems that 'almost anything can be included within the ambit of comparative education' (Broadfoot, 1999: 22). This diversity makes it difficult to define precisely what the boundaries of comparative education are.

Postlethwaite (1988) suggested that 'strictly speaking to compare means to examine two or more entities by putting them side by side and looking for similarities and differences between or among them. In the field of education, this can apply both to comparisons between and within systems of education' (Broadfoot, 1999:25). Postlethwaite provided a broad view of comparative education.

Considering pedagogy across cultures, the points of view of Alexander (1999) could deepen the interpretation of comparative education. He not only acknowledges that comparativists have contributed much to understanding of national systems and policies, but also stresses, from his route into comparative studies, the importance of school effectiveness research across culture. He indicates that 'a comparative perspective is an important and necessary part of the quest to understand and improve the science, art or

craft of teaching, and to enable us to distinguish those aspects of teaching which are generic and cross international boundaries from those which are culture-specific' (Alexander, 1999:149). Moreover, he judges that 'comparative research not only offers pointers for raising educational standards; it also challenges some of very assumptions on which the current drive for standards are based. For example: the assumption that the relationship between pedagogy, attainment in literacy and national economic competitiveness is direct, linear and causal (attainment and economic performance being multi-factorial, the reality is much more complex)' (Alexander, 1999: 174).

Looking at those comparativists' perspectives, I have come to realise that comparative education is a comprehensive area, and explores the differences and similarities in different national histories and cultural contexts which inform both educational values and practices, and that different groups or individuals might emphasise different educational phenomena in a particular comparative context in order to improve the theories and practices in education.

3.2.2 Value of comparative study

At the present time, comparative study, like other forms of educational research, is facing challenges worldwide and experiencing reconceptualisation. There are many reasons why there is a need to reconceptualise comparative study at this time. Watson (1999:233-248) provided six needs for the reconceptualisation of comparative study as follows:

◆   *'the need to challenge wrong assumptions';*

◆   *'the need to stress the unique contribution of comparative research which is providing insights into the policy making process through understanding and explaining education under different cultural contexts';*

◆   *'the need to understand the implications of globalisation;*

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◆ *the need to understand the economics of education;*

◆ *the need to move beyond the economy and to analyse spiritual and philosophical values; and*

◆ *the need to prepare for the future.'*

These six needs identified above have made researchers take a broader look at the role of comparative education. Considering the current situation, from the perspective of a policy researcher, Patricia Broadfoot (1999) suggested that comparative studies had three important potential roles to play: 'first, by providing internationally consistent data on the effects of different educational practices-if indeed these exist. Second, by providing case-studies of the internal dynamics of education systems and how these influence the idiosyncratic effects of educational practices in any particular context. By so doing, I suggested, policy-makers could be provided with guidance as to the likely outcomes of any particular innovation. Third, by questioning the most basic and taken for granted assumptions under which any educational system operates' (p 21). This method not only shows its methodological significance as an instrument of collecting data within the international context and as a means to improve educational practice in any particular society, but also contributes to the development of theory and decision making in comparative countries.

In *On Comparing* David Phillips lists nine values of comparative study; I briefly outline them here.

◆ Comparative study can provide 'a body of descriptive and explanatory data which allows us to see various practices and procedures in a very wide context that helps to throw light upon them' (Phillips, 1999: 16).

◆ It can provide authoritative objective data, which will be used by politicians and administrators. Also it can be of assistance to policy makers and administrators.

◆ It can help us to understand better our own past education and society and locate ourselves more accurately in the present and see a little more clearly what our educational future may be.

◆ It can contribute to the development of the theoretical framework and building the rationale for specific educational phenomena.

◆ It can support the development of any plans for educational reform, which needs to borrow experience of other countries.

◆ It can promote the cooperation of different nations and provide a platform for researchers from worldwide to discuss different educational phenomena and analyse their similarities and differences under different context.

As reviewed in literature, citizenship education has experienced a difficult time in history and now has been given much attention by both English and Chinese schools. However, there has not been much interest in comparison between the two countries, especially in approaches to citizenship education. So my efforts on this field might be useful. The value of my comparative study in small scale will be shown below.

Firstly, my attempt is to provide a deep understanding of citizenship education in both countries. Secondly, I try to provide a vision to look beyond my own country and look for useful ideas to transplant for consideration of policy makers. Thirdly, by borrowing from another I hope to improve our own perspectives in citizenship education and to solve problems facing us in my country. Fourthly, in the process, I seek to recognise the weakness of the policies and practice in citizenship education in my country, and also prevent the mistake of another system from being repeated again in our own system. Fifthly, this dissertation will provide not only a comparison of similarities and difficulties in policies for and approaches to citizenship education, but also provide an analysis of reasons involving culture and history and social factors. Finally, I also offer this comparative study for other researchers interested in citizenship comparison to discuss and make suggestions.

3.2.3 How is comparative education studied?

Orientation

Comparative education has its traditional strengths as an applied, problem-oriented field (King, 1989:369). With the reconceptualisation of comparative study and the implications of more recent social-economic trends and complexities of globalisation, international organisations and comparative researchers have shifted the orientation in new ways. The new ways 'must be found to engage both directly, and critically, with the contemporary concerns and priorities of mainstream educational research-led with the worldwide call for cumulative and professionally oriented, evidence-based research and policy-making' (Crossley, 1999: 254). It is clear that the new ways pointed out for researchers not only need to consider the contemporary concerns of worldwide education and the adoption of broad research under different contexts and cultures, but also draw on descriptions of the pedagogic practice from other societies to improve policy making. Therefore, it is time for comparative researchers to consider themselves closer to practice and collect full evidence from their own and foreign contexts and cultures. With the recognition of new ways of comparative education, some new research centres in comparative education have been established around world such as at the Universities of Oxford, Bristol and Warwick in the UK, and at the Universities of Hong Kong and elsewhere in South East Asia. Obviously, research orientation and evidence-based research have been paid more attention.

Approaches

'In many respects, the methodology adopted in cross-national comparative research is no difference from that used for within-nation comparisons or for other areas of sociological research' (Hantrais, 1996:3). In this point, approaches to comparative education have been within common research methodologies, and multiple research methods can be used

in comparative education. Different researchers in the comparative field use different approaches for different purposes. People doing comparative research are free to draw on those methods of inquiry that seem most appropriate to them to answer the research questions that have been posed (Keeves and Adams, 1997).

Approaches to comparative education can be descriptive or evaluative or analytical. From another angle, they can involve both qualitative and quantitative methods, including empirical methods, statistical methods, and case study methods. Moreover, whether individuals or teams set out to examine particular issues or phenomena in two or more countries with the express intention of comparing their manifestations in different socio-cultural settings, they might use the same research instruments either to carry out secondary analysis of national data or to conduct new empirical work. Their aims may be to seek explanations for similarities and differences, to generalise from them or to gain a greater awareness and a deeper understanding of social reality in different national contexts.

Following the new orientations and considering the aims of this dissertation, I use case study method to conduct my particular study in a comparative context. I will introduce this method in later section.

3.2.4 Issues in comparative study

Although there is much value in comparative education, it is not to say there are no pitfalls. In large-scale comparative studies, the mix of countries or researchers is likely to affect the quality of the results of the whole project, because of the different research traditions and administrative structures, and because the criteria used and the method of collection may vary considerably from one country to another. Those issues might be avoided in small scale and individual comparative research, but some other issues might occur such as some ethical issues and communication issues. Particularly for individual

researchers, sometimes they need permission to gather data from departments of different countries and they need think seriously about reliability without bias. There are some further considerations for comparative researchers such as whether the same situations are being compared, and whether the identical terms and concepts carry the same meaning in different cultures, and whether the information to be collected is available, and whether the relevant research questions important to researchers' own experiences and background of knowledge are perhaps less important to other cultures. In addition, language might be a big problem. Hantrais (1995) indicated language could present a major obstacle to effective international collaboration. The reasons he explained are because it was not simply a medium for conveying concepts, but part of the conceptual system, reflecting institutions, thought processes, values and ideology, and implying that the approach to a topic and interpretations of it would differ according to the language of expression.

In order to overcome those problems in my study, I took every step carefully. Firstly, I attempted to apply for permission to collect data from both target schools. The advantage I have is the good relationship with two target schools. The school in China is where I had worked for many years before I came to England. The school in England is where I have been teaching for a couple of years. With frequent contacts and effort on communication, I got kind permission from both schools. Secondly, before conducting this research, I read many books and papers relevant to citizenship education. At that time, I was aware that not only some differences but also some similarities in citizenship education might exist. So the aim of the study involves exploring the reasons why those differences and similarities exist. Thirdly, in the course of doing the literature review, I found that both countries were paying attention to citizenship education at the present time. So the research questions I raised are important to both countries. Fourthly, I made an effort to overcome the language problem in many ways. The most important method is to have my supervisor examine the draft before submitting. Another key method is to invite a native speaker having experience in academic study to help me to check language. It is also important to check and recheck constantly by myself.

3.3 Case study

At the beginning of thinking about the research methods that I will try to use in this comparative study, the saying of Bassey (1981) encouraged me. He indicated that 'case studies are carried out systematically and critically, if they are aimed at the improvement of education, if they are relatable, and if by publication of the findings they extend the boundaries of existing knowledge, then they are valid forms of education research' (Bassey, 1981:75). Case study method will be suitable for my study.

3.3.1 Definitions

In defining case study, several writers have different definitions. Wilson (1979) conceptualizes the case study as a process which tries to describe and analyse some entity in qualitative, complex and comprehensive terms not infrequently as it unfolds over a period of time. MacDonald and Walker (1975) refer to a case study as the examination of an instance in action. Similarly Robson (1997) defines a case study as an approach to research involving empirical investigation of a particular current issue using multiple sources of evidence. Yin (1994:13) prefers to see case study in terms of the research process. 'A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident'. All definitions allow me to consider that a case could be a person, a classroom, a school, a curriculum, a policy, and so on. I also consider that case study could be used to examine and explore a case or cases when researchers have little control over the events, and when there is a contemporary focus within a real life context. It could look at the interaction of all variables so as to provide a complete understanding of an event or situation.

3.3.2 Types of case study

Case study may comprise single or multiple-case designs. 'Single cases are used to confirm or challenge a theory or to represent a unique or extreme case' (Yin, 1994:38). They are the intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or policy. Single-case studies also need careful examination to avoid distortion and to maximize researchers' access to the evidence. Merriam (1998) mentioned these terms 'collective case studies, cross-case, multicase or multisite studies'. These terms are generally used when researchers conduct a study using more than one case. This type of study includes collecting and analysing data from several cases. Miles and Huberman (1994) also explained that by looking at a range of similar and contrasting cases, we can understand a single-case finding, grounding it by specifying how and where and, if possible, why it carries on as it does. And each individual case study consists of a complete study, in which data are gathered from various sources and conclusions drawn from those data.

3.3.3 The main features of case study in comparative education

Case study is a comparatively flexible approach. It is important not to ignore its variety and diversity in comparative education. So I only try to briefly identify the main features of case study.

One significant feature is that cases are studied in their whole and complex context. Researchers in comparative education embark on case studies that usually involve at least two countries, needing consideration of the total and complex contexts. Cases are chosen from different cultures, different backgrounds, different histories, different educational systems, and different settings. It is necessary for researchers to take into account the complexity of context.

Case studies in comparative education are well suited to develop detailed and holistic descriptions of each instance. As Merriam (1988) explains that a case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit'. It is clear that case studies provide thick and in-depth understanding and description of cases. Some aspects of case studies in comparative education address this feature. Firstly, case studies illustrate the complexities of each instance influenced by many factors. Secondly, case studies explain what happened and why a policy or a reform worked or failed to work in a specific context. Thirdly, such studies may or may not contain a historical component, but any information that can be collected is generally more descriptive. It is therefore to say that detailed and holistic description of each instance was well developed in comparative case studies to get a full picture of an event and situation.

Case studies in comparative education focus on comparing and contrasting similarities and differences of education phenomenon across two or more research situations. Within comparative case studies, phenomena of education are compared across two or more research situations. If differences exist, then researchers may seek to find reasons for the differences. Alternatively, if differences are not observed, then researchers may be interested in finding the reasons for the similarities. It is possible that similarities and differences are found between two or more situations, thus, the comparison would be more complex and researchers need to explore the broad reasons and analyse the interrelationship of situations.

Another important characteristic of case study in comparative education is that it obtains information from multiple data collection techniques. Researchers have noted the tendency for comparative case studies to use a variety of data collection techniques such as documents, interviews and observations. Also they have realised that they are free to choose those techniques in related to their own research questions.

3.3.4 Strengths and limitations of case study in comparative education

Strengths

One of great strengths is that case studies specialize in rich and thick description based on particular contexts that can give research results a more human face. As mentioned above, the case could be a person such as a student, a teacher, a participant; a group such as a class, a school, a community; a specific policy; a phenomenon, and so on. Whatever the case is, it is from real life rather than from a hypothesis. Furthermore, comparative case studies provide rich and thick description of each instance within their real life context, which require researchers to embed themselves in the field in order to capture the innermost thoughts and feelings and gain direct information. As a result, researchers will reflect a more human character and lead to a deeper understanding of the case.

Another strength is that case study in comparative education emphasizes the interrelation of cases through comparison; researchers compare the similarities and differences. For example, in my study it will be obvious to distinguish the different contents of citizenship education according to the documents. However, it is more important to explore the internal interrelation and external influence. For instance, my research not only focuses on what the similarities and differences are between different policies for and approaches to citizenship education, it also seeks to find why differences occur at the similar time, why they adopt different measures to the similar objects, and whether they will have the same development orientation in the future.

The case study in comparative education is a comparatively flexible method. Researchers are comparatively free to discover and address issues as they arise in their research. The looser format of case studies allows researchers to begin their research with broad questions and narrow their focus as their research processes rather than attempt to predict every possible outcome before the research is conducted.

In addition, the use of multiple data collection techniques in comparative case study overcomes the bias of a single method.

Limitations

The major problem of comparative case study is its inherent subjectivity. A case study relies on personal understanding of data, personal knowledge and abilities through most of this research effort. The personal integrity, sensitivity, and possible prejudices of researchers may influence the research including the process and results.

Certain ethical issues need to be taken into account within this method. Some case studies are financed by people who have, either directly or indirectly, power over those studies. Some individual comparative researchers probably do not have any funding; they may need to make more efforts to set cases or access to cases with the permission of some people or organizations. Also it is possible to reveal a situation or a point which may be against government policy.

The problem with the use of multiple data collection techniques also needs to be considered. Massive amounts of data will result in the difficulties of data management in comparative case study.

Additionally, case study in comparative education may be limited by lack of time. Comparative case studies emphasize deep data, which need researchers to embed themselves in the situations. So it takes some time to collect 'real' data.

3.3.5 Design of this case study

Robson (1997) identifies four steps that can be followed by case study researchers. Those steps are designing a conceptual framework, devising a set of research questions, having a sampling strategy, and deciding on the methods and instruments that could be used in data collection.

A conceptual framework is the first step that should occur before any investigating has taken place, and concerns the main features of the case study including the aspects and dimensions and factors of the case study. It also helps the researchers to formulate the research questions and understand what data will need to be collected. It is important to have consistency between the research questions and the conceptual framework. After developing the conceptual framework and deciding the research questions, an effective sampling strategy will need to be devised. An ineffective sampling strategy may lead to the case study being accused of bias. So it is important to take carefully people and settings and events and process into consideration while keeping the conceptual framework and research questions in mind. The final step is to choose techniques of data collection. It can be document analysis, interviews, observations or questionnaires. Whatever the techniques have been chosen, they must be suitable to the research questions.

Following the four steps that Robson identifies, with the consideration of my intention of comparative research, this case study has been designed. The conceptual framework in this case was based on the policies and approaches to citizenship education in the two countries. The focus of the case study is to compare the differences and similarities of policies and approaches to citizenship education and explore the reasons for those differences in one school chosen in England and one in China.

From this framework the research questions were formulated as what similarities and

differences have existed on national policies for and approaches to citizenship education in English and Chinese schools, and what backgrounds are behind those similarities and differences.

The sampling strategy was based on three selections, schools, students and documents. The schools chosen are secondary schools, of which one is in China that I had worked before and one is in England that I am teaching now. The subjects chosen are secondary students between 15 and 17 years old. The documents selected are those used for teaching citizenship education or those that suggested ways and criteria for citizenship to be introduced into schools.

The methods of collecting data used in this comparative study are document analysis and questionnaires. Questionnaires are designed to get information on approaches to citizenship education, while documents are selected to have an understanding of policies for citizenship education in schools. Those methods provide the valuable sources to achieve triangulation.

3.4 Using documentary evidence

3.4.1 Documentary evidence

Documentary evidence is a valuable source of data for this comparative study. Before looking for documentary evidence, it is necessary to clarify what kind of document might be used and the nature of the document.

Documentary evidence can be divided into primary sources or eye-witness sources written by people who experienced the particular event or behaviour and secondary sources written by people who were not present on the scene but who received the

information necessary to compile the document by interviewing eyewitnesses or based on primary documents. Bell (1993) states that primary sources can in turn be divided into deliberate sources and inadvertent sources (p68). A deliberate source provides evidence for the future, including autobiographies, memoirs, diaries or letters. An inadvertent source is produced for a contemporary practical purpose and can be later used for researchers, such as the records of government departments and local authorities, and records of meetings and bulletins.

Whatever the nature of documents is, documents have certain important advantages. They are convenient to use; are often free or available at a small cost; can be collected during a shorter time than interviews, questionnaires or observations; can avoid some research permission required for interviews, questionnaires and observations in public institutions, and can be analysed when institutions such as government departments and schools are closed. However, using documents the researcher must be careful with sensitivity to the possible biases and mistakes of both the writer and the researcher. Documents also have their limitation in describing what is said rather than what is done.

The critical analysis of documents, according to Bell (1993), can be identified as internal criticism and external criticism (p70). External criticism concerns the genuine and authentic discussion of document whilst internal criticism concerns a thorough analysis of the contents of the document. In external criticism it is necessary to know why the author produced the document and whether the document is consistent with other facts. Internal criticism is more time consuming because the contents of the document require rigorous analysis. Some basic questions need to be firstly asked, including: the date, the author, the type of document, the purpose of the document, the actual contents of the document, the circumstances, is the document typical and whether the document is complete. After that, further questions need to be asked such as the author's social background and what is written in the document and what is omitted. Bell (1993) also stresses that it is important not to accept sources at face value and examine them carefully.

3.4.2 Using documents for this research

I try to refer to all documents available at the target schools in England and China that were concerned with the policy and approach to citizenship education. I put the focus attention on: Citizenship Order (2002) in England; Schemes of Work for Citizenship at key stage 3 and 4 (2002); the Middle School Guide of the target school in England (2004-2006); The Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan (2001) in China; The Ordinary High School 'Ideological and Political Education' Curriculum Standards (on trail) in China; the Curriculum Plan of the target school in China (2004).

All those documents chosen in this dissertation are primary sources, as they directly reflect the events or plan, and they were made by people who attend the events or process. And they are all deliberate sources that directly and partially guide the future development in citizenship education. The analysis of documents conducted is internal criticism. I provide thorough analysis of the relevant contents of the documents and answer some basic questions and some further questions as well. The analysis of documents will be presented in next chapter.

3.5 Using questionnaires as a research technique

3.5.1 Introduction of Questionnaires

Questionnaires

Questionnaire is a common tool of the social researcher, which is to obtain factual and attitudinal information from the respondents who are involved in the investigation. 'Questionnaires use standard questions to gather data from a range of respondents in order to permit comparison of the replies received, aggregation and summarisation of the

results' (Bulmer, 2004:XIV). More commonly, questionnaires are employed in studies whose purpose primarily is to produce quantitative results that are then entered into computer and analysed with a data analysis package such as SPSS. However, 'some questionnaires may be employed in social research inquiries which are entirely or predominantly qualitative, such as exploratory studies of a particular area or issue' (Bulmer, 2004:XV).

Type of questionnaires

Bell (1993) identified questionnaires in two types. One type is open questionnaires; another type is structured questionnaires. When researchers wish to give the respondents the opportunities to provide their views on the topic or wish the respondents to explain the ideas according to their experience, they may choose open questions in their questionnaires. Open questions are expected to reply in a word or a phrase or an extended comment, which can produce useful information, but may cause difficulties in analysis. 'The more structured a question, the easier it will be to analyse' (Bell 1993: 76).

Youngman (1986, cited by Bell) suggested that structured questions could be listed or categorised or ranked or scaled or quantified or provided in grid. They are different. A question is shown using a list of items, any of which can be chosen. While for category questions, the response is one only of a given set of categories. In ranking questions, the answer is put in rank order. There are various stages of scaling devices (nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio) that may be used in questionnaires. And the questions may be provided in a grid table, which the respondent may give the same answer to two or more questions.

Advantages and disadvantages

Generally, questionnaires are looked at as a good way of collecting data because they are quick and relatively cheap. Time and money are two important factors in research. No person wants to waste time and spend unnecessary money in research. Questionnaires can directly approach the issues, from which you need to get answers and collect useful information.

The second advantage is that questionnaires reflect more factual and attitudinal information. People may argue that interviews have the same function, but interviewees need to overcome some difficulties in answering some sensitive questions. However, without signature, the respondents of questionnaires may more freely provide the exact answers.

Next advantage is that the questionnaires make comparison easier. If we want to compare two groups of respondents in order to know their differences, we use questionnaires, which are standardised with a clear meaning. The respondents may take the similar meaning from the questions into consideration. Thus, the comparison is more accurate. At the same time, the answers can be shown clearly for their differences.

However, there are some problems with questionnaires. First, respondents may not know the questions or may not remember the event asked about. Second, questions can have a common meaning to some respondents, but may mean something different to other people. Third, sometimes researchers hold strong views to the questions that respondents have different understanding, which may lead to the error that the questions are not useful. Fourth, open questions may result in some difficulties in analysis. So before conducting questionnaires in comparative research, researchers need to think carefully about questions that should have the same meaning to all respondents, should be concerned by respondents. In my comparative study, these problems may also be raised. In order to overcome those problems, after designing questionnaires, I showed them to my supervisor for checking, and then corrected it and took it as a sample to show all

questions to two students in two target schools. Its aim is to help me to check whether those questions are concerned by them and whether the questions have the same meaning to them.

Steps of conducting questionnaires

Borg and Gall (1989) in their book *Education Research-an introduction (fifth edition)* suggested seven steps of conducting questionnaires. Those steps include 'defining objectives, selecting a sample, writing items, constructing the questionnaire, pre-testing, preparing a letter of transmittal, and sending out your questionnaire and follow-ups' (p 423).

Defining the questionnaire objectives is the first step, in which researchers need to ask themselves why to use this tool to collect data and what aims will be reached. Once the objectives are clearly stated, researchers need to identify the target population; those people will be able to provide the information that researchers want. Next step is writing items. First, one needs to list all the items that may be required, and then examine the list and eliminate those items that are not directly associated with the objectives, next write down the items selected using simple, clear and well-worded language. The items selected then need to be listed in some logical order and usually have the sensitive questions listed at the end of the questionnaires. The researchers must provide clear instructions for each question, so respondents understand what they need do. Then researchers need to consider layout. Before sending out the questionnaires, it is necessary to pre-test and prepare a cover letter. For the pre-test, researchers may choose a sample of individuals from a population similar to that from the target population or get someone who is able to check and make good suggestions for the questionnaires. A brief cover letter is needed to give respondents good reasons for completing the questionnaires and the aims of the study in order to get a sufficient percentage of responses. Lastly, researchers need send out the questionnaires by personal contact or by the help of friends

and colleagues or by post. Afterwards, researchers need to wait the return with the expectation of enough responses and be careful in dealing with the late return and non-responses.

After finishing those steps, researchers need to record, analyse, describe and interpret the questionnaires that have been returned. Researchers need to choose a summary form to present the results and illustrate the points from the analysis.

3.5.2 Using questionnaires for this research

For the purpose of my study, following the steps mentioned above, I conducted questionnaires in both case study schools.

Defining questionnaire objectives

It is one aim of my study to compare the approaches to citizenship education in two target schools of England and China. At the beginning of thinking about which technique might be used in my study, the book *Citizenship in Schools* edited by Ken Fogelman (1991) was very helpful for my consideration. In this book an article entitled *Approaches to Citizenship* mentions that the approaches could include the ethos of the school, organizations of the school, activities of the school, teaching and learning. Those points inspired me. And at the same time, I referred to the survey (2002) of citizenship in secondary schools throughout England and Wales jointly conducted by University of Leicester School of Education, and School of Social and Community, in which they use questionnaire as a method. I decided that it might be suitable to use a questionnaire to explore the approaches to citizenship in my study, given the advantages of questionnaires including quick and economic results, and making comparison easier and providing factual and attitudinal information.

Following Ken Fogelman's points of approaches to citizenship, the questionnaire in this research contained three sections. The first section concerned the ethos of schools; the second section was about the organization of schools; the third section stressed the activities of schools. The objective of this questionnaire is to compare approaches to citizenship education in two case study schools of different countries. In detail, the objectives involve what differences and similarities could exist in ethos of schools that influence citizenship education, and how the pupils participate in the organizations and activities of schools, and how often they attend such activities and how useful they find this. As an approach to citizenship education, teaching and learning would be discussed and compared through the analysis of documents.

Identifying the target population

The two case study schools

It has been mentioned earlier that the two case study schools chosen in this study are secondary schools, of which one is in China that I had taught before and one is in England that I am teaching now.

Several reasons made me to decide to choose these two schools. One reason is that the two schools have many similar features including location, history, management, and high rate of entrance to higher education. The school in England is located in a great setting of a Cathedral as a boarding school. It has over hundreds of years of history that brought out excellent academic atmosphere with skilled and high level staffs and 98 percentage of entry to University, has built up quality of management and pastoral care with strict regulations for pupils and staffs. The school in China is a boarding school and placed in a famous ancient city with a long cultural history in northeast. It is a place where there are more than a hundred years of history that gave the very best in its pupils

including the excellent equipment, high quality staffs and strict management. Its entry to University reached 97 percent. Another reason is that both schools are representative in their own countries because of their traditions and systematic curriculum settings. Both schools have a very long history and form their own traditions following the standards of national education departments. The curriculum in both schools offers a well-balanced and broad education that is suited to the ages and abilities of the pupils, and tries to prepare them well for the next stage of education and employment. A further reason is that I am familiar with both schools, which make it easy to gain access to research and collect data.

Who do I want to question

After deciding to use questionnaires as a research technique, firstly I thought about whom I want to question. My aim is to use questionnaire to compare the approaches to citizenship education in case study schools. My questions focus on school ethos, student organizations and student activities, in which pupils may have strong positions or mainly take part, and they may provide direct information about how they think about school ethos, organizations and activities. Certainly, it is useful to have the sound from teachers because they directly offer students lessons. However, the teachers' view might easily focus on their own subjects teaching experience. In this context, I thought that the points of view from pupils might provide more strong evidence for comparison in approaches to citizenship education. Therefore I decided to question pupils in two target schools.

Conducting the questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 40 pupils in each of two schools. The age of pupils ranges from 15 to17 years old. I listed all questions in relation to those three sections of the questionnaire including the ethos of schools, the organisations of schools and the activities of schools. Then I showed them to my supervisor to check and examine

whether they were appropriate. The suggestion from my supervisor reminded me that more specific questions work better than general questions and open questions work better when not enough is known about potential response, and also reminded me to make the clear meaning of the questions, and to pay attention to the fact that using two languages might lead to some changes in expression of the questions. Those suggestions were very helpful for revising the questionnaire. In revising the questionnaire, I put six questions in section one, which are structured questions, using the grid type. In section two, I designed four questions that are also structured grid questions. In section three, three questions were designed, in which the first two questions were structured and use the type of categories and the last was an open question. After revising the questionnaire, I gave a brief introduction to the research and prepared to send out them (See Appendix A and B).

When preparing to distribute the questionnaires, I planned two strategies for the two schools. For the English school, I would send them by myself because I taught there and it would be easy to send them to pupils. Also I would send more than 40 questionnaires for enough returns. For Chinese School, I would send them via my ex-colleague who I worked with three years ago and I was familiar with, because I was not in China. So I needed to send the sample of the questionnaire by email and my colleague could print them out and send them to pupils. Afterwards, my colleague would collect the questionnaires and post them to me.

Fortunately, the returned questionnaires in both schools were in time and had a good response rate (for the first two sections, the response rate is 100%; for the last section, the response rate is respectively 87.5% and 70% in England and in China), which offered me a good start for data analysis.

In conclusion, document analysis and questionnaires are effectively used in my study. Documents provide the important evidence to understand the policies of citizenship

education in schools, and questionnaires offer helpful information for analysing the approaches to citizenship education in more detail. Next chapter will conduct document analysis and questionnaire analysis.

CHAPTER 4: Document analysis and questionnaire

analysis

4.1 Document analysis

As mentioned above, the documents in this dissertation are primary sources. And they are all deliberate sources for the further development of citizenship education in schools. I will analyse the contents of the documents focusing on policies of citizenship education in schools.

1. Citizenship Order in England (see in Chapter 2, 2.3.1)

2. Schemes of work for citizenship at Key Stage 3 and 4 (2002)

The schemes of work that I have chosen in this dissertation, provided by Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA)/ Department for Education and Skills (DfES), are a non-statutory resource that schools can use flexibly to support their planning. Schools can use them as they wish and are free to devise their own ways of meeting the requirements of the national curriculum. This scheme shows how the citizenship programme of study for key stage 3 can be translated into manageable units of work. It consists of 19 exemplar-teaching units at Key Stage 3 and 12 exemplar-teaching units at Key Stage 4, which can be combined in different ways and supplemented with materials from other subjects and adapted to create explicit opportunities for citizenship.

At Key Stage 3, unit 1 is an introduction of citizenship. Units 2 to 9 provide examples of

discrete citizenship provision that may be linked with other subjects, for example: crime; human rights; government, election and voting; Britain-a diverse society; local democracy; leisure and sports; the significance of media. Units 10 to 13 provide examples of citizenship that may be delivered through other subjects and as formatted citizenship provision, such as citizenship and geography, citizenship and history, and citizenship and religious education (RE). Units 14 to 18 provide examples of citizenship that may be delivered through wider curriculum activities or off-timetable events. Unit 19 is a review unit.

At Key Stage 4, 12 units focus separately on human rights, crime (car crime), racism and discrimination, business and enterprise, consumer rights and responsibility, producing news, global issues and local active, Europe (who decides?), laws (how and why made?), economy functions, planning a community event, rights and responsibilities in world of work.

The contents of the schemes of work are dependent on the Citizenship Order and to meet the needs of new curriculum of Citizenship at Key Stage 3 and 4. They stress understanding, knowledge and developing skills, but also a sequence of activities with related objectives and contents. Students need to research the examples and examine the ways to reach the knowledge and skills. The scheme of work at Key Stage 3 is the foundation of understanding citizenship; at Key Stage 4 it is deeper and broader.

3. Middle school guide of the target school in England (2004-2006)

This document is provided by the director of studies and heads of several subject departments. Its contents are comprised of curriculum settings and course contents and assessments. Its aim is to guide teachers and pupils to clarify curriculum settings and course contents and assessments, also to give pupils an academic introduction to a large number of subjects, together with their associate skills, and to help them to make

appropriate choice of the courses they prefer to study and help them to acquire the personal proficiency needed for a successful career at the target school and beyond. This guide is updated every year via school intranet. The section 'Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE)/ Citizenship' of this guide was attached as an Appendix in this dissertation.

The target school in England is an independent school, which means that it is not subject to National Curriculum control. However, the Head of PSHE/Citizenship in the target school said that though this school was free to set citizenship lessons, it had been trying to follow the criteria of National Curriculum for citizenship. This guide quoted the guidelines for Citizenship from the National Curriculum handbook and followed the three strands in Citizenship Order to run the subject of Personal, Health and Social Education (PSHE) throughout Shell Forms (Key Stage 3) and Remove Forms (Key Stage 4) to support citizenship education, with additional lessons in the Fifth Form (Key Stage 4). 'Each class offers the opportunity for discussion and role-play. Also these lessons provide related work on study and learning skills' (The Middle School Guide, 2004-2006). According to the framework of the National Curriculum, the purpose of this subject is to develop pupils' confidence and responsibilities, make the most of their abilities, develop a healthier lifestyle, and develop good relationships and respects for the differences between people.

However, the subject of PSHE is more about personal issues and personal responses whereas Citizenship is more about public issues and public responses. The target school not only sets the PSHE subject to support citizenship education, but also uses an interdisciplinary approach to fulfil the three strands for citizenship at Key Stage 4 in National Curriculum. Those three strands include knowledge and understanding of the rights and responsibilities of informed citizens, developing skills of enquiry and communication, and developing skills of participation and voluntary action. The interdisciplinary approach is to carry out the citizenship through the contribution of each subject and other related programmes such as critical thinking programme and

co-curricular programmes (talks, conferences and young enterprise). Additionally, out of class, many opportunities exist for developing active citizenship, for example 'through participation in meetings of the Middle School Forum, the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme (integral key skills of working with others, problem solving and improving own performance), the Social Services programme as well as the wider sporting, musical and extra-curricular life of the school' (The Middle School Guide, 2004-2006).

Citizenship Education in the Sixth Form is more flexible. It can be reached by a range of ways in different subjects including economics, geography, history, religious studies and politics, and co-curricular programmes including talks, conferences, activities and young enterprise as well as sporting, musical and social activities in the school and some beyond the school.

In the target school, those co-curricular programmes and extra-curricular activities were offered not only as enrichment to the curriculum, but also as entitlement for different years students.

4. The Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan in China (2001)

This document was issued in 2001 by the Ministry of Education (MoE). I selected the second part curriculum setting to investigate how citizenship is carried out through curriculum.

The subject of 'Ideology and Political Education' is set out as an important core subject to support citizenship education. Current affairs education is the important part of this subject and is carried on through organizing pupils to listen to and watch national and local news.

Physical and Health Education also has been set as a compulsory subject. National Defence Education, Environment Education, Population Education are carried on through different relevant subjects and activities, also through open lectures in some optional subjects.

Social Practice is a national compulsory lesson, including a research study, work-based technical education (Laodong jishu jiaoyu), community service and social practice. The aim of this lesson is to help students to relate to social reality, and to accumulate experience and practical abilities.

According to the characteristic of students along with the social context, schools need to organize rich and diverse activities through the Communist Youth League (GongQing Tuan) and clubs and other groups. In addition, citizenship has been absorbed into education through symbolic events like commemoration days, the national flag, the national anthem and national emblem.

5. The Ordinary High School 'Ideological and Political Education' Curriculum Standards (on trial) in China (see in Chapter 2, 2.3.2)

6. The Curriculum Plan of the target school in China (2004)

The Curriculum Plan of the target school in China is produced by the deputy headteacher and directors of studies, and is based on the Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan in China. According to the characteristics of locality and school, some adjustments have been made, although the school is not as free to vary from the plan as the independent school being able to in England. The document includes the curriculum setting, curriculum implementation and curriculum assessment. Its aim is to provide a guideline to teachers for their arrangement and assessment of teaching.

'Ideology and Political Education' is a compulsory subject taken in all levels of the school. But the teaching time of this subject is less than some key subjects such as Chinese language and literature, maths and English. This subject plays an important part in citizenship education.

National Defence Education, Environment Education, Population Education are embedded in different subjects such as history, geography and biology. Health education and art are also set as compulsory subjects in Grade 1 and 2, but only have one teaching time (45 minutes) a week. Work-based technical education and social practice take two weeks a year in Grade 1 and 2. The school organises the pupils to go to a Quality Base to experience the life of peasants or to attend military training to experience the life of soldiers. According to the requirement, the school also organises some symbolic activities like commemoration days' activities in Grade 1 and 2 through the Communist Youth League (GongQing Tuan). Each Monday morning, there is a ceremony for the national flag, which requires all pupils of the school to attend and in which there is a short speech given by a student. Social service is set outside of the school timetable.

However, in Grade 3, pupils only take those main subjects that need examinations for the entrance to the universities, and they do not need to attend any social practice excepting the ceremony for the national flag.

4.2 Analysis of questionnaire

Vlaeminke and Burkimsher (1991:48) suggested that in analysing the approaches to citizenship education we need to include the ethos of the school, the organization of the school, teaching and learning, and the routine activities of the school. Based on these perspectives, I looked at questions such as: are pupils satisfied with the ethos of the school; do pupils have opportunities to work in a variety of different groups or organisations; how do teachers deliver citizenship in their teaching and how do pupils

learn it; and do pupils have opportunities and time to attend the wider activities of the school. I aimed to illustrate the differences and similarities of approaches to citizenship education between two schools in the two countries.

After conducting and collecting the questionnaires (mentioned in Chapter 3.5), I embarked on questionnaire analysis. 'Raw data from questionnaires...need to be recorded, analysed and interpreted' (Bell, 1993:127). The response of the questionnaires for each school in my study has been recorded. The following is the analysis of questionnaires, but not the comparative analysis that will be shown in next Chapter. The analysis and interpretation illustrate three aspects: ethos of the school, organization of the school and participation in the school, and activities of the school.

Ethos of the school

Table 1 (in Appendix C) shows that the pupils' responses to the ethos of the target school in England. Most pupils think they can make up their own minds about issues related to the school, and feel free to disagree openly with their teachers about political and social and school issues, and feel free to express their opinions. Also, pupils positively admit that their teachers respect their opinions and encourage them to express and discuss their opinions about political and social and school issues, and teachers can explain an issue from different aspects. So it is clear that most pupils are satisfied with the ethos of the school.

Table 2 (in Appendix C) shows the number of responses to the ethos of the target school in China. Those numbers indicate that (1) half of pupils think that they are not or rarely encouraged to make up their own minds about the school issues, (2) more than half pupils don't feel free to disagree with their teachers or staffs about political and social and school issues, (3) but more than half pupils can feel free to express their opinions, (4) most pupils think that their teachers can analyse and explain questions from several

aspects, and respect pupils' opinions, but not often raise discussions in the classes to the political and social issues.

Organization of the school and participation in the school

Table 3 (in Appendix C) illustrates that in the target school in England most pupils take part in the teams of sports, art, music or drama. Those kinds of organizations are to build personal interest and improve personal development of all-round abilities. However, most pupils do not join in the student council or union, and do not attend the voluntary activities which the school group or team organized to help the community or people as well. But half the pupils take part in school charity to collect money for a social cause.

Table 4 (in Appendix C) gives the number of pupils taking part in the organisations of the school. It is clear that most pupils do not take part in the teams or groups in sports or music or art or literature and so on, but most pupils join in the student council or union. The same numbers shown in question 2 and 4, indicate that half of pupils attend the activities of helping the community or people or giving the money for charity.

Activity of the school

Table 5 (in Appendix C) gives the number of the responses to the activities of the school. It is obvious that most pupils often or very often attend the activities and think that those activities are useful to citizenship education.

For the last open question 'to list some activities you attended and give your comments on them', 35 pupils in the target school in England provided the answers. The activities listed include musical activities (orchestra, crypt choir, band, dance), sports activities (football, rugby, swimming, fencing, tennis, hockey, vintage cycle, rowing), social

service (budget for three young boys, looking after babies), and other activities (art, classical cinema, Duke of Edinburgh, public speech, house clothes day, astronomy events). The pupils take part in a range of activities of the school and enjoy them and make positive comments on them. They think that those activities are interesting, give them lots of fun, help them to do exercise, build confidence and team spirit, improve their skills and develop their further ideas. Also they think that those activities give them many opportunities and challenges, and they can learn keeping alive and helping others.

Table 6 (in Appendix C) shows the numbers of how often pupils attend the activities and how useful they think those activities in the target school in China. More than half pupils do not attend the activities organised by the school's different teams or groups, although most of them think that those activities are useful or very useful for building citizenship education.

Along with the last question, it is more accurate to consider pupils' opinions as to the activities. 28 pupils in the target school in China answered the last open question. 18 pupils gave positive comments, and others provide negative comments. The pupils list some activities they have attended. Those activities involve musical activities (chorus), sports activities (basketball, excursion), social service (planting trees, collecting the rubbish in order to keep the good environment, donation, helping the deaf), quality training (training in the quality base, experiencing the life of peasants, experiencing the life of army), and other activities (studying the rules of law). Most students reflect that those activities are very useful, which can help them to strengthen their responsibilities, the awareness of protecting the environment and team spirit, and can enrich their life in school, help them to understand the poor life of some peasants, improve their friendship, and can help some poor people. However, some pupils think that those activities have little use. They explained that (1) those activities are not often organised, (2) the organisers only pay attention to the form of the activities rather than the significance of the activities, which means that the organisers consider much how their work can be recognised by the governing body but ignore the value of the activities for students

themselves, (3) many activities follow the old form, lacking of fresh contents, which can not motivate pupils' interests.

To sum up, the analysis of document and the questionnaires have indicated some different and similar characteristics in both policies for and approaches to citizenship education in English and Chinese schools. For example, the curriculum settings in citizenship education and targets of citizenship education are rather different. The form of activities and the attitudes of pupils to participate in those activities showed lots of differences. In order to clarify those differences and similarities, next chapter will focus on comparative analysis in both countries, which depends on the analysis of this chapter.

CHAPTER 5: Comparative analysis of policies for and approaches to citizenship education in schools between England and China

This chapter emphasises comparative analysis. The differences and similarities of policies and approaches in citizenship education between England and China are discussed.

5.1 The differences and similarities in policies for citizenship education in English schools and Chinese schools

5.1.1 The differences

Document analysis has earlier established the policies of citizenship education at national and school levels in England and China. The differences between them can be presented in four aspects: curriculum settings, targets for citizenship education, teaching and learning (contents), and practical activities.

Curriculum Settings at national level

As has already been explained, the national curriculum for England has introduced citizenship as a statutory element at secondary school level (Key Stage 3 and 4) and as a

part of a non-statutory element in primary schools since 2002. Also citizenship education can be carried out through other subjects and wider programmes and activities. In China, citizenship has not been set as an independent statutory curriculum, but citizenship education is carried out through several subjects, in which the subject of 'Ideology and Political Education' takes an important role. Moreover, citizenship education is also implemented through some activities and symbolic events in Chinese schools.

At this point, we can see that citizenship, as a statutory element, has been introduced in National Curriculum in English state schools, but not necessarily in independent schools. However, as an independent school, the case study school in my research follows the criteria of National Curriculum for citizenship. In Chinese schools, citizenship is not set as a compulsory curriculum. It means that Chinese schools still need to do more work and study in setting citizenship into curriculum. In fact, with the implementation of new curriculum reform in 2000, Chinese education department has realised and paid more attention to it in order to catch up with the western countries in citizenship education.

Targets for citizenship education

The policy for citizenship education in England aims to teach pupils to become informed and active citizens with healthier lifestyles. According to the Citizenship Order, pupils should have a comprehensive knowledge and understanding of the political events, forms of government, rights, responsibilities, duties of citizens, the criminal and civil justice, legal systems and economic systems. They should be able to use different information and form, to express their own opinions, to take part in different activities that schools organise, to show willingness and commitment to evaluate those activities critically and effectively.

The Ministry of Education in China is concerned that citizenship education should contribute to the all-round development of young people (Quanmian fazhan), which

includes moral, intellectual, physical, aesthetic development. Pupils need have the spirits of patriotism and collectivism; love socialism; inherit the good revolutionary traditions; have the consciousness of law, responsibility and environment; have basic knowledge, skills and methods for lifelong study; have the skills of creativity, both practical and scientific; have strong physique, healthy mentality, aesthetic standards and healthy lifestyle. In one word, a pupil should become a person with ideals, morality, intellectuality and discipline. All-round development of young people is a high expectation of any education departments, which is an ideal aim. It means that pupils need to become outstanding people with the ideal characteristics of persons rather than simply qualified citizens.

So it might be said that the policy of citizenship education in England gives us a comparatively factual face, an apparently neutral concept of citizenship; pupils as individuals need to be educated to become informed and active citizens. In contrast, the policy in China presents a more overtly political face with the aim of a socialist ideal citizenship education. Pupils need to become outstanding people with ideal characteristics and contributing to the development of socialism.

Teaching and learning (contents)

The national curriculum for England and schemes of work for citizenship at Key Stage 3 and 4 guide teachers to teach pupils about citizenship, human rights and responsibilities, forms of government and society, crime, racism, the issues of discrimination, voting, business and enterprise, media, leisure, sports, health, the rights and responsibilities of employer and employee.

In contrast, the Ministry of Education in China stresses that citizenship education needs to take Marxism-Leninism, Mao Zedong ideology, Deng Xiaoping theory and 'Three Representations' as the instruction and guiding ideology. Pupils should be taught the

basic viewpoints and methods of Marxism and Leninism. Also they should be taught that the Chinese Communist Party is the leader of Chinese characteristic socialism; that modernization of the Chinese characteristic socialism is the goal of the country. Pupils need to understand the history, economy, culture and policy of contemporary China; to understand citizen morals and law; to pledge allegiance to the country; to love motherland, its people and society; to love life and peace; to know the circumstances of national and international economy and politics; to respect others; to grasp some general knowledge of life.

So from documents it is clear that the teaching and learning content of citizenship is broad and comprehensive both in England and China. However, in England, the content of teaching and learning in citizenship focuses more on citizen's rights and responsibilities, as well as individual's manners, behaviours and emotions, while in Chinese schools it concentrates more on political respects and concerns rather than on individuals. On the other hand, I have to say that what actually happened in the real teaching class in English and Chinese schools might show another picture that differs from what documents said. Although it was not discussed in this dissertation, it should be an interesting topic for the future study.

Practical activities

The policy in England shows some opportunities for practical activities, which are mentioned in both the Curriculum Order and Schemes of Work for Citizenship. Also, the Guide of the Target School gives many provisions for activities such as school meetings and forum, role-play, the Duke of Edinburgh Award, young enterprise, the social service programme, and wider activities of sports, music, travel and research. Many activities are often carried out in all years' pupils; pupils attend those activities and can choose any activity relying on their interests and hobbies, but they must choose two or three to attend. Those activities offered in the target school are not only as enrichment to the curriculum,

but also as entitlement for all students. In the Six Form, pupils have even more opportunities to attend those activities.

The policy in China provides a national compulsory lesson entitled Social Practice, which includes research study, work-based technical education, community service and social activities. Those activities can only take about one or two weeks of the year to carry out. Older pupils in Grade Three have no opportunities to attend those activities, as they must prepare for examinations. The policy pays more attention to the study of knowledge and citizenship contents.

So, it is clear that English pupils, especially the pupils in this case study school have many opportunities and time to practice in or beyond the school. Compared with England, the policy in China mainly concentrates on knowledge and content learning, with a lack of practical activities. And some activities are compulsory. Older Chinese pupils have comparatively few opportunities and little time to attend activities.

5.1.2 The similarities

Both countries look at citizenship from three different standpoints: knowledge, understanding and skills. The national curriculum for England defines citizenship education around three strands. Those are knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens, developing skills of enquiry and communication, developing skills of participation and responsible action. The Ministry of Education in China also focuses on all-round development of young people including knowledge and understanding and skills in social life.

Chinese citizenship education presents an ideal, which should contribute to the all-round development of young people (Quanmian fazhan). English citizenship education is more

focused in orientation, expecting pupils to become informed and active citizens. To some extent, both countries hold high expectations for citizenship education. However, there are some difficulties to overcome to achieve the goals for both countries in citizenship education. Firstly, it is not easy to assess whether each pupil can be educated to achieve the requirements in knowledge, ability and action in *Citizenship Order* of England and in *The Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan* of China. We do not exactly know what has happened in the teaching time, whether pupils reached the goal as the documents said. The assessment is a difficult process and a big issue. Even some pupils got 'D' grade or failed, which does not mean they are failed as citizens. Secondly, it is also difficult to ensure each school takes proper action in citizenship teaching. Some schools may face difficulties to implement it due to their specific situations. For example, in England, some independent schools may not follow the National Curriculum. In China there are many schools in rural areas with poor conditions in education. Thirdly, it is unavoidable that the bad behaviours and manners from some adults in the society will affect pupils.

Additionally, policies in citizenship education in both countries emphasize pupils' activities such as sport, music and other community service, despite the forms and opportunities of activities provided being quite different.

5.2 The differences and similarities of approaches to citizenship education in English and Chinese schools

5.2.1 Introduction

In order to prepare pupils to meet the demands of the policy for citizenship education, pupils need to be provided a wide range of approaches that can develop their knowledge, understanding and skills in citizenship. 'In most countries, citizenship education is broader than the formal curriculum, involving the hidden curriculum, whole-school and extra-curricular activities, as well as students' everyday experiences of life' (Kerr, 2000:211). In comparing differences in policies for citizenship education between one English school and one Chinese school, it is clear that the National Curriculum for England sets the statutory lessons in citizenship education in secondary state schools. At the same time, citizenship education is infused into different subjects such as history and geography and religious education, and also through the cross-curricular themes such as environment education, health education and other extra-activities. In Chinese schools, citizenship education is adopted as an integrated approach, with citizenship mainly permeated into the subject of Ideology and Political Education and infused into some other subjects such as history, geography and biology. And also it is implemented through some extra-curriculum activities. But China has no statutory citizenship lessons.

Following the suggestion of Vlaeminke and Burkimsher in analysing the approaches to citizenship education, which was mentioned in Chapter 4. I analysed the approaches to citizenship education through the ethos of the school, organisation of the school and participation in the activities of the school. Here, I provide a comparison of approaches to citizenship education in both case study schools by the following bar charts.

5.2.2 Ethos of the school

'The ethos or atmosphere or climate or spirit-of institutions both control and derive from all the practices that go on within them' (Vlaeminke and Burkimsher, 1991: 50). The ethos of the school influences all aspects of school education and influenced by them. 'Citizenship education is learnt and cultivated in part through the school ethos which is the context for the development of worthwhile values. It is the school ethos which will infuse all other aspects of a school's life' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:33). So in order to find out whether or not a school has a positive ethos, we need consider some relevant aspects. These might include the democratic and harmonious atmosphere; the environment within the school; the respect for individuals; the sense of school community; the emphasis on learning; the encouragement to pupils; the relationship between teachers and pupils; the expectations both at academic and pastoral levels. Then, we need to ask: are pupils happy with their school ethos; Do pupils have good relationship with their teachers and staffs; Do pupils feel free to openly express their opinions about school and political and social issues, even when they take different positions from those of their teachers and school staffs and other pupils.

In this study I only explain the ethos of the school from the pupils' perspectives rather than the teachers' view and other actors mentioned above, and try to see how democratic the schools are and whether the pupils are satisfied with the ethos of the school. I hope that the comparison of schools' ethos through this thesis can be useful for consideration of future research.

According to the responses of questionnaire together with the analysis in Chapter 4, the following figures attempt to reveal a clearer vision for comparison. Figure 1 shown below provides a comparison on the perceived ethos of the school by students between the case study schools in England and in China.

Figure 1: Comparison of the perceived ethos of the school between students in the target school in England and in the target school in China.

Perceived ethos of the school: comparison between one English school and one Chinese school
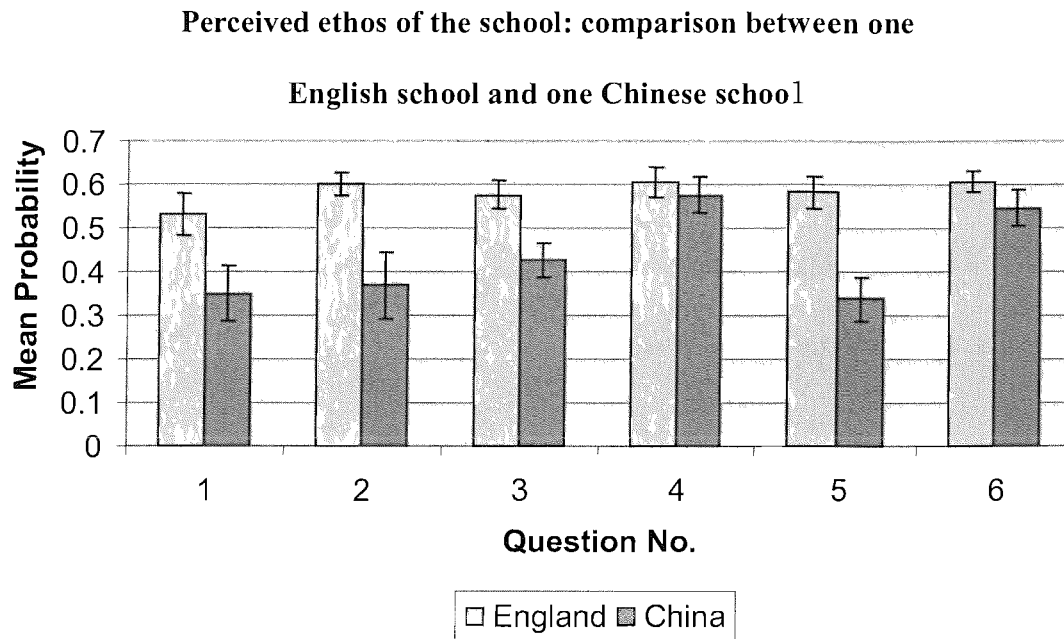
Notes:

Question 1: Are you encouraged to make up your own minds about issues of the school?

Question 2: Do you feel free to disagree openly with your teachers or staffs about political and social and the school issues?

Question 3: Do you feel free to express opinions in the school even when your opinions are different from most of the other students?

Question 4: Do teachers respect students' opinions and encourage students to express their opinions during classes?

Question 5: Do teachers encourage students to discuss political or social issues about which people have different opinions.

Question 6: Do teachers present several sides of an issue when explaining it in the class.

Figure 1 is a subjective measurement. The vertical axis is labelled by mean probability, and the horizontal axis is labelled by the question number. For the mean probability, I take '0' as Never, '0.25' as 'Rarely', '0.5' as 'Sometimes', '0.75' as 'often'. Different people may have different evaluation of the probabilities, e.g. someone may think that the mean probability '0.2' should respond to "Never", but others may think that the

probability corresponds to "Rarely" response. However, in this study the individual difference does not change the result of the comparison if we assume this difference is normally distributed among the two populations between England and China.

From the mean scores and the variance calculations, it is clear that the distribution of answers is similar only in Question 4 and 6 between both schools and other answers have big different distribution. In English schools, most pupils are satisfied with the ethos of the schools. They can make up their own minds about the school and society and politics issues, and feel free to disagree with their teachers and can openly express their opinions. At the same time, they positively recognise their teachers' work, and think that their teachers respect their opinions and give them helpful encouragement.

In China, most pupils are happy with their teachers, but some pupils do not feel free to disagree with their teachers' opinions, and think they are not encouraged to make up their own minds about school issues. They think that they do not have many opportunities to discuss the social and political issues. Also there are a few pupils who feel that their teachers do not often encourage them to express their own opinions at all.

Thus, it seems that ethos of schools in England is more encouraging; while for the school in China it is more strict and authoritarian, although most pupils in both countries are happy with the ethos of their school. Compared with the Chinese pupils, the English pupils feel freer to express their opinions and build their own views, and obtain more encouragements from their teachers.

5.2.3 Organization of schools

The organization of schools is generally structured into subject departments with extra groups or teams for the specific requirements. In this section the comparison focuses on

the extra organisations related to citizenship in both countries rather than in certain subject departments, for example, interest groups or teams and school councils or unions. Interest groups or teams aim to build personal interest and improve personal capabilities in different aspects such as sport and music. School councils or unions provide a formal mechanism for the participation of pupils in the development of the school and individuals. Figure 2 gives a comparison on organizations of the school and participation in the school between the school in England and the school in China.

Figure 2: Comparison on organizations of the school and participation in the school between the target school in England and the target school in China.

Orgnization and participation: comparison between one English school and one Chinese school
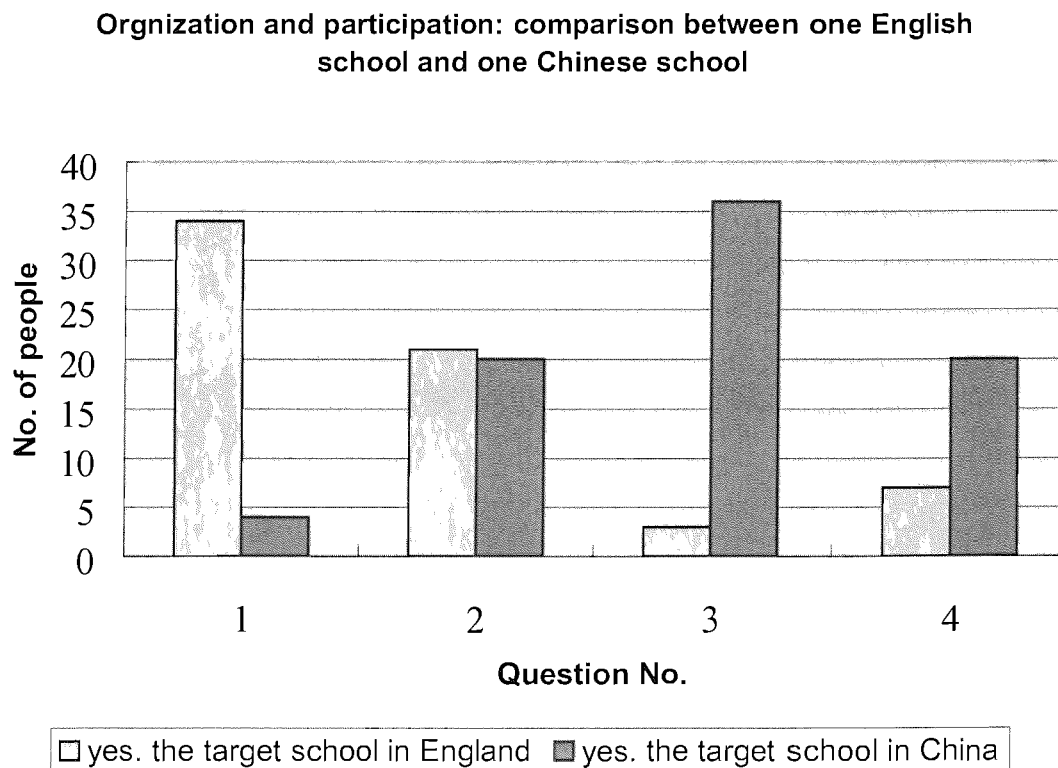
Notes:

Question 1: Do you take part out of school time in a school's sports (are, music, drama, literature...) organization or team?

Question 2: Do you take part in school charity collecting money for a social cause?

Question 3: Do you take part in a student council/union?

Question 4: Do you take part in a school team or group conducting voluntary activities to help the community or people?

From Figure 2 we can see that a similar situation is reflected in the numbers of pupils taking part in school charity, collecting money for a social reason in both schools. But most pupils in English schools take part in the teams of sports or music or drama and so on, only few pupils join in the student council or union. On the contrary, most Chinese pupils take part in the student council or union entitled Communist Youth League (GongQing Tuan), but few pupils take part in the sports or music or literature teams. Half of the pupils in Chinese school also take part in a school team or group conducting voluntary activities to help the community or people, but in England, only few pupils attend this kind of group. The comparison reveals that English pupils would like to develop their personal abilities in wider sports and music and other groups, following their own individual interest and willingness. In contrast, many Chinese pupils join in the Communist Youth League that is a progressive organisation of students, which means that pupils might be attracted by its political and collective vigour. The reasons for these differences will be discussed in next chapter.

5.2.4 Activities of schools

Schools organise a variety of activities to support and promote citizenship education by different organisations. Those activities could be conducted in or beyond schools, in the school timetable or out of school timetable. Figure 3 compares the student's participation in the activities of the target school in England and the activities of the target school in China.

Figure 3: Comparison of participation in the activities between the target school in England and the target school in China.

How often do you attend activities of the school organizations or teams mentioned above?

	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China
	very often	very often	often	often	not often	not often	not at all	not at all

How useful do you feel those activities for building citizenship education?

	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China	the target school in England	the target school in China
	very useful	very useful	useful	useful	not useful	not useful	neither useful nor not useful	neither useful nor not useful

From Figure 3, it is clear that most pupils in both schools recognise the usefulness of group activities out of school to citizenship education. English pupils in the target school attend such activities consistently, while more than half Chinese pupils do not often attend those activities. Most Chinese pupils in the target school spend more time on studying and they might study in schools from early morning to late evening. Pupils in

the target school in China, which is a boarding school now in North, have normal study time from 7:30am to 21:00pm, so pupils do not have enough time to attend such activities. Furthermore, the characteristics of activities are rather different in both schools. The activities organised by the interest groups or teams in the English target school are broader and more interesting to young people than in China. In the target school in England the activities are organised by the interest groups or teams include researches outside school, trips around country or journeys to other countries, and all kinds of matches such as Sailing, Power Boating, Cycling, Canoeing, Swimming and Climbing. In contrast the interest groups or teams are limited in Chinese schools. Usually, the groups or teams include volleyball, basketball, football, running and art. Chinese pupils only who are good at such activities will take part in the groups. English pupils, taking part in the activities, depend on their interests, and their aim is to have fun and to improve personal knowledge and abilities for future life. Chinese pupils usually take part in the activities for public welfare, and the activities are usually compulsory. The purpose is to complete a task or demonstrate the significance of activities. Some Chinese pupils have complaints about those activities; the reasons have been mentioned in Chapter 4 questionnaire analysis (see page 61).

5.2.5 Teaching and learning (methods and styles)

'Citizenship education is as much about the content as about the process of teaching and learning. It lends itself to a broad mixture of teaching and learning approaches, from the didactic to the interactive, both inside and outside of the classroom' (Cogan & Morris, 2001:120). The change in teaching and learning styles is improving the relationship between teachers and pupils. Pupils are given more opportunities to discuss and work in groups, to improve the skills of research and problem solving and decision-making; teachers are more facilitative. 'In other words, students take more responsibilities for their own learning, an essential element in an ethos which helps to develop qualities for citizenship' (Fogelman, 1991:55).

The Chinese New Curriculum Reform is making efforts to change teaching methods from a passive, didactic, transmission characteristic to a more interactive, participative approach with opportunity for classroom discussion and debate and inquiry work. In this regard, English schools have gone forward earlier. English schools have developed a specific curriculum programme that encourages a mixture of approaches to ensure that the goal of education for citizenship is achieved. For example, the target school in England has set a PSHE/Citizenship programme, the Duke of Edinburgh Award, an outdoor activities programme, Expedition Training, Leadership Training programmes followed by a sequence of activities such as Six Form talks and seminars, First Aid and physical activities (Sailing, Power Boating, Cycling, Canoeing and Climbing), which have given pupils more opportunities for cooperating in groups and making progress in problem solving and decision making.

In Chinese schools citizenship education teaching still proceeds from the use of the textbook as the predominant teaching resource. It is a common teaching approach to use a specification of textbook and follow-up opportunities for pupils' discussion in China. For example, in the target school in China, each teacher has the teaching guidance of the textbook to help teaching for all subjects including citizenship. This kind of teaching predominated by the textbook will of course affect the learning and skills development.

In short, the policies for and approaches to citizenship education in both schools have shown some similarities as well as considerable differences. Why do those similarities and differences exist between the English school with its western tradition and the Chinese school with eastern tradition? What lies behind those similarities and differences? Next chapter will discuss the background for the similarities and differences.

CHAPTER 6: Background to the differences and

similarities of policies for and approaches to citizenship

education in both countries

Any country has its own broad contextual factors influencing citizenship education, which impact on the policies for and approaches to citizenship education. The main contextual factors include the historical tradition, culture, politics and economy. For citizenship education, the different understandings of the meaning of citizenship undoubtedly result in the emergence of different policies and approaches. These broad contextual factors are highlighted in this dissertation in order to explore the background for differences and similarities of policies for and approaches to citizenship education.

6.1 Historical tradition factor

Referring back to the literature review in Chapter two, citizenship education in England has its origins in a western tradition that was strongly influenced by Ancient Greek and Rome, extended with the development of western civilization and western philosophy. In recent centuries, with the development of citizenship, Marshall's (1952) perspectives were developed, including Civil Citizenship, Political Citizenship and Social Citizenship. Later, citizenship education was re-examined and Crick's (2000) three strands were developed, including social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. The historical development of citizenship reminds policy makers to include comprehensive social, moral and political factors and community responsibility when introducing citizenship education into schools. However, policy makers also

realised that 'political awareness was very low' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:7), which has been shown in policies for citizenship education that focus on individual knowledge, abilities, manners, behaviours, wishes, rights and responsibilities.

Citizenship education in China was based on local history and ancient philosophy that stressed the virtue of each person. China experienced over 2000 years' under the control of a feudal monarchical system, which is why the development of citizenship education lags behind western countries. Until the mid nineteenth century, China began a social transformation from the authoritarian society where its people were subjects of an absolute monarchy to a modern democratic concept of citizenship of a nation. Afterwards, influenced by the wars and frequent political movements, citizenship education experienced a range of difficulties, and more moral and political requirements were attached, creating an ideal. It is the reason why the contents of the citizenship curriculum stress more political and collective aspects rather than attention to individuals. Recently, Chinese citizenship education has started to extend its breadth to personal rights and responsibilities. The traditional concepts of belief in virtue still deeply influence Chinese people, and their pursuit of an ideal society and ideal personality. Therefore, the target for citizenship education in China addresses the all-round development of pupils towards an ideal goal.

6.2 Culture factor

Culture is a universal concept that stands for the totality of socially transmitted behaviour patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought. Here in relation to exploring the culture factor for citizenship education in English and Chinese schools, 'pedagogy' as a core cultural variable, is highlighted. Robin Alexander (2000) argued that 'pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it' (p 540). He also indicated three ways to approach the question of cultural models of pedagogy. Here I

show two ways related to my study to explain the culture factor. The two ways are teaching and learning.

'In England, there was no obvious democratic commitment within the classroom, but rather a strong allegiance to a developmental view of the individual within a framework of unambiguous teacher authority' (Alexander, 2000:555). In China, according to my previous piece of work *Critical Thinking of Teachers' Role under Chinese New Curriculum Reform* (2005) on the New Curriculum Reform whose aim is to change teacher centred education to student centred education, I found that most teachers did not in fact change their role from knowledge transmitters and controllers to guiders or facilitators in classroom teaching.

The differences between England and China in this regard might be a reason why most pupils in English schools feel freer to disagree with their teachers and can more openly express their opinions, while in Chinese schools citizenship education teaching still proceeds from the use of the textbook as the predominant teaching resource and some pupils feel that they do not have many opportunities to discuss the social and political issues in class and their teachers do not encourage them to express their own opinions.

Alexander (2000) explained that Bruner had identified four dominant models of learners that 'have held sway in our times' as the basis for his quest to reposition educational psychology more firmly in the cultural domain: seeing children as imitative learners; seeing children as learning from didactic exposure; seeing children as thinkers; seeing children as knowledgeable' (Alexander, 2000: 557). To some degree, learning in England accords with Bruner's third model that presupposes that pupils can and do think for and by themselves. In China, learners are seen as learning from didactic exposure. Teaching has a strong emphasis upon the acquisition of facts, principles and rules, and sees pupils as unknowledgeable until they have demonstrated they can recall and repeat the facts, principles and rules. Although the New Curriculum Reform has tried to change the model

of learners, most teachers' teaching still keeps that emphasis.

The differences in this respect between England and China may show that English schools adopting wider outdoor activities and indoor discussions, talks and forums to give pupils' opportunities to research and participate rather than listening to in citizenship education; that pupils in Chinese schools mainly study principles and rules of citizenship in classroom through teachers' transmission.

6.3 Politics and economy factor

It is undoubted that politics and economy are important factors in the development of education. Education is always included in the political dialogue and is improved with the development of the economy.

In England, 'politics is conducted with due regard to the parliamentary democracy which has prevailed in England over the past many centuries' (Shafer, 1983:211). Shafer mentioned that the growth of the power of the working class over the past century as well as the drastic effects on England of two world wars, the virtual loss of its empire, and current economic pressures have all changed the social structure of British society. Education has been used on the one hand as a means to resolve those issues in political culture, on the other hand, to reinforce and cater to the development of politics. 'Political power over education is divided between Parliament and the civil servants in the Department of Education and Science' (Shafer, 1983:213). In the past, Parliament arranged for extensive investigations of education through the Department of Education and Science (DES) and the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). At the local level, Local Education Authorities (LEAs) are responsible for the maintenance of state schools, not for the independent school. More autonomous bodies also influence educational policy such as the National Literacy Strategy and National Council for School Leadership. Political ideology and goals directly influence the education plan and

practice. 'Political ideologies are in the melting pot and there is widespread disenchantment with the politicians' (Potter, 2002:5). Potter (2002) pointed out that politicians were becoming worried about two things: One was that people, particularly young people, were becoming increasingly alienated from society and democracy. Another was that the network of trust and personal relationships that bind society together were perceived as 'wearing thin' (Potter, 2002:19). In this political context, the political debate has moved to the importance of citizenship education. It is one reason why citizenship education has been paid more attention in curriculum setting and schools' policy. At the same time, the rapid development of the economy has resulted in the need for informed people with sufficient knowledge, abilities, and understanding of society and culture and politics and economy. Therefore, as seen today, the Citizenship Order in English schools identified in three strands of knowledge and ability and understanding.

In China, since 1949 the Communists led the whole society that was transformed into the Soviet standard of socialism. The education system and school curriculum planning were guided in the Soviet model. The aim of citizenship education was to cultivate all young people to become heirs to the cause of proletarian revolution. Citizenship education focused on the knowledge of Marxism and Leninism, the Chinese revolution, current events and Party policy. Those aspects were closely associated with political education and political development. In later years, the priority of citizenship education was expanded with the contents of law, the constitution, a sense of community, patriotism, the history of social evolution, socialist revolution, selfless devotion to the defence of the country and communism, and economic, but without mention of individuals' rights and entitlements. From 1966 to 1976, China experienced the 'Cultural Revolution' that plunged the country into political struggle. At that time, citizenship education was replaced with political study of the selected Works of Mao Zedong. Until the late 1970s, things began to change with the decision of Central Party Committee that moved emphasis from ideology struggle to economic development. It is the root that today citizenship education still exists more in its political respects and embodiment, as Wing On Lee identified 'political elements are always present in China's history of citizenship education' (Lee, 2006:5). With the nation-wide economic reform and rapid development,

the ideology began to change, which resulted in the using of the neutral term 'citizenship' instead of the old term 'heirs to the cause of proletarian revolution'. Importantly, the open-door policy has brought about reconsideration and reconstruction in many aspects such as democracy and legality. Therefore it becomes an urgent need to enhance citizenship education to meet the demand of establishing a democratic and legal society. It is the reason why citizenship education has emphasized knowledge, ability and action in today's China.

6.4 Different conceptual implications of citizenship education

There is a long-standing discussion of the implications of citizenship education. Many commentators argue that citizenship is conceptualised and contested along a continuum. McLaughlin (1992) makes the distinction between minimal interpretations and maximal interpretations. Minimal interpretations are characterized by a 'thin' definition of citizenship, where citizenship is promoted in schools through the hidden curriculum. This leads to narrow, knowledge-based, content-led approaches to citizenship education through teacher-led and whole-class didactic teaching methods. It concentrates on the transmission of knowledge of a national history, geography, politics and economy to pupils. And it is easy to measure the outcomes through written examinations. Maximal interpretations are characterized by a 'thick' definition of citizenship, where citizenship is promoted in the schools' formal curriculum. They seek broad, values-based, process-led approaches to citizenship education through interactive methods both inside and outside the classroom between teaching and learning. This involves not only knowledge components, but also active investigation and participation. Teachers help pupils to use knowledge and understanding to enhance their capacity to participate in exercises. It is more difficult to measure how successfully the pupils have achieved the goals.

McLaughlin offers another classification (Kerr, 2000): education about citizenship (providing students with sufficient knowledge and understanding of national history and

the structures and processes of government and political life); education through citizenship (students learning by doing, through active, participative experiences in the school or local community and beyond); education for citizenship (encompassing the other two stands and involving equipping students with a set of tools which enable them to participate actively and sensibly in the roles and responsibilities they encounter in their adult life).

Most characteristics of citizenship education in China accord with the minimal (thin) interpretation of citizenship education and currently move from the form of education about citizenship to the form of education through citizenship. However, because the old understanding of citizenship education has existed for a long time, there are difficulties in adopting a neutral concept of citizenship, and citizenship education needs long time to catch up with the western countries with the form of education for citizenship.

In England, they appear to take the maximal (thick) interpretation of citizenship and leave room for education for citizenship. Therefore, we see that citizenship is now a statutory element in English state schools and often incorporated in same form into independent schools too, like the target school. Schools and teachers have great flexibility to develop their own innovation approaches to citizenship and develop their own curriculum content. The target school of this study in England delivers citizenship education as part of the provision of Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE)/Citizenship and provides a great deal of opportunities to pupils to participate in broader activities.

It is worth noting that the debates around the terminology of the concept of citizenship in England never stop. The implication of citizenship education in schools must be influenced by those wider debates.

6.5 Different assessment arrangements for citizenship education

Assessment arrangements for citizenship education show variations between England and China. 'Citizenship education is more likely to be part of a formal assessment system in the lower and upper secondary phases because of the way those phases are organized in many countries around formal examination qualifications' (Kerr, 2000:220). In England, the assessment is related to the qualifications as the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) and General Certificate of Education Advanced levels (GCE A-Levels). In China, the assessment is related to the Certificate of graduation in primary and secondary levels, and in upper secondary level it influences the entrance to higher education.

It is vital to consider the attitudes on the purpose of assessment in citizenship education and its impact on teaching and learning methods. In England, the assessment of citizenship education is currently a weak area and a major concern for many schools. 'Although there are qualifications which assess some aspects of citizenship education, there is no qualification on offer which reflects the statutory programme of study in citizenship for Key Stage 4' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:135). But there is now a short course GCSE in Citizenship addressing the Citizenship Order. QCA have reported that many schools are planning mixed approaches to assessment. 'The main purpose of assessment in citizenship education must be to improve learning and enable progress to take place' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:138).

In China, the formal assessment system has a negative influence on citizenship education. Most schools place a low priority for citizenship education because for a long time they are under heavy pressure to increase the proportion of pupils entering the higher grades of school and higher education through the highly competitive national examination. Local

education departments and schools are driven by these examinations. This lowers the priority of citizenship education, and puts more emphasis on the formal assessment system that is focused narrowly on a small number of academic subjects. Teachers are interested primarily in improving pupils' scores in those narrow academic subjects. Pupils also focus on their scores and have not many opportunities and little time to take part in social activities and interest groups. This is the reason why there is little room for citizenship education, and why the interest groups or teams are limited in Chinese schools, and why some pupils have complaints about those limited activities. It is also worth noting that in England pupils are also under pressure of the examination of GCSEs and A-levels, but the pressure is not as heavy as Chinese pupils suffer. Because of the vast population of China, it is extremely hard to enter higher education for Chinese pupils, who have a popular metaphor of university entrance as pupils crushing on one bridge to the entrance of universities.

Here I have only highlighted the main factors influencing citizenship education in both English and Chinese schools. This might not be the whole picture for exploring the reasons of differences and similarities of policies for and approaches to citizenship education. However, as I mentioned earlier, it could be used as a basis to devise questionnaires for a large-scale quantitative survey of schools in England and China, and to look at deeper and wider reasons for a future piece of in-depth research. But, such a large-scale survey and an in-depth research are beyond the scope of this MPhil thesis.

CHAPTER 7: Conclusions and recommendations

7.1 Summary of this study

This dissertation has compared the policies for and approaches to citizenship education in schools between England and China, and explored the reasons for those existing differences and similarities. In order to conduct this comparative study in a small scale, I selected two case study schools in England and China, in which I collected documents and used questionnaires.

Citizenship education has been paid more attention by both governments as a way to address society's problems and meet the demands of current and future development of the nation and the world. The different historical traditions together with different culture, politics and economy, have resulted in different implementations of the concept of citizenship and policies for and approaches to citizenship education. The differences of policies are revealed in curriculum settings, targets for citizenship education, teaching and learning (contents), and practical activities. The differences of approaches are indicated in the ethos of the schools, the organization of the schools and participation in the schools, activities of the schools, and teaching and learning (styles).

It is worth noting that, to some extent, there is still a long way to go for Chinese schools to reach the level of education for citizenship carried on in English schools. Citizenship has been set as a statutory curriculum in English state schools and is often followed to some degree in independent schools and is hoped that through education all students will learn to become good and active citizens. Consequently, English schools develop their own curriculum content and practical activities to improve their own innovative approaches to citizenship to meet the demands of the policies. In contrast with English schools, Chinese schools step slowly towards the ideal goal, all-round development of

young people, due to the big pressure of national examination and overload in work for both teachers and students.

It is also noted that citizenship education has been based predominantly on political concerns and current affairs with the lack of personal attention in Chinese schools. This has been revealed through teaching content and curriculum settings and school activities. Contrarily, English young people are leaving Party politics to politicians and focusing more on personal rights and development and individual interests, which have been shown through the attitudes to the school activities.

On the other hand, some similarities of citizenship education between England and China show that both countries are trying to improve the consciousness of citizenship education and realising that knowledge, ability and actions are important in cultivating informed citizens.

Documents and questionnaires, as the techniques conducted in two case study schools for this comparative study, are very helpful. However, it is inevitably limited to compare policies for and approaches to citizenship education in both countries only through two cases. In order to avoid bias and some general problems in using methodology and methods for this particular study, I firstly consulted with my supervisor for my dissertation proposal and attained insightful suggestions for each step of my study; secondly I analysed data as they were being collected rather than waiting until all data had been collected; thirdly I checked the results by showing them to my colleague for ensuring accuracy; next, I had the draft of each chapter reviewed by my supervisor and undertook careful revision. Despite the limitations of a small-scale study, I hope that it will provide helpful information for future studies.

7.2 Challenges in Citizenship Education

Both countries are facing challenges in citizenship education like many other countries. As Kerr (2000) reminds us the main challenges are to '(1) achieve a clear definition and approach; (2) secure its position and status in the curriculum; (3) address teacher preparedness and teacher training; (4) increase the range of appropriate teaching and learning approaches; (5) improve the quality and range of resources; (6) decide on appropriate assessment arrangements; (7) develop and disseminate more widely effective practice; (8) influence the attitudes of young people' (p 223).

Indeed, there have been considerable debates concerning the definition of citizenship and citizenship education. As a contested concept, it is difficult to have commentators and researchers and practitioners reach agreement on a definition of citizenship and citizenship education. So it will be a big challenge for them to achieve a clear definition. Importantly, facing the impact of globalisation and internationalisation, there is a need to consider citizenship education as a whole, which means to think about its definition together with its aims, approaches, position and status in the curriculum. 'Teachers are familiar with the aims of their subject, its content and the different strategies that can be used to teach it in order to bring about the desired learning in the pupil' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:70). It is teachers who will determine the quality of citizenship education offered in schools. So it is vital for schools to provide some professional development and training for teachers with the knowledge and teaching skills necessary to deliver citizenship in their teaching. Particularly, if teachers are used to giving priority to didactic teaching methods with pupils' passive learning as preparation for examinations, the training will be more important. Also, it is necessary to provide a range of resources such as websites and guidebooks to guide teachers to embark on citizenship education. Additionally, teachers and schools need to make an effort to address active citizenship within and outside schools and provide appropriate assessment arrangements for citizenship education. Because citizenship education emphasizes participation and active involvement of all learners, 'one of the greatest challenges of citizenship assessment will

be how to assess progress and achievement in the vital participatory aspect of citizenship education' (Arthur & Wright, 2001:127).

The ultimate goal of citizenship education is to cultivate pupils to become informed and active citizens, so it is worth considering the attitude of young people and the influence of all work done with young people.

Besides the eight challenges mentioned by Kerr, there is also one of difficulties facing citizenship education to keep pace with the demands of the times, modern societies and global events. Notably, 11 September 2001, the Iraq war, London bombing and SARs in China, all linked with justice, peace, democracy, fairness, respect and moral notions, which have reminded us that it is urgent to enhance citizenship education in order to better fit the realities of the changed global circumstances.

English schools also need to 'fill the gap between growing personal needs and the necessarily limited provision of the state' (Potter, 2002) and draw more attention to involve pupils into political life. Chinese schools face more particular challenges. One challenge is to shift the understanding of citizenship education from the old definition to the neutral concept of citizenship. Another is to make a balance between citizenship education and national examinations. In other words, schools need to shift their attitude to examination. The next big challenge is the difficulty of implementation, because many teachers do not fully understand what citizenship education encompasses, and because some local education departments and schools and teachers overtly agree with, but covertly oppose the implementation of citizenship education.

7.3 Suggestions for future development

Currently, citizenship education has been a part of the educational reforms in many

countries including England and China, which reflects the importance of citizenship education in preparing both individuals and society to respond to the challenges and developments of new era.

In England, many debates and investigations have taken place on Citizenship education. One important suggestion is 'to monitor the continuing debates about the nature of citizenship education so as to determine what sort of goals are being targeted and what potential there will be for improved knowledge, understanding and participation in contemporary society' (Davies, Evans & Reid, 2005: 85). They also rejected the notion that 'education responses to globalization can be achieved merely by adding international content or token global education type activities to citizenship education programs' (p 85). In spite of many debates, how far are policies for and approaches to citizenship education in schools influenced by these debates? So it is important to listen to teachers' opinions, and also students' opinions.

In China, first, it is important to encourage more researchers and professionals to engage in systematic research and investigation on citizenship education so as to have a clear understanding of the nature of citizenship education as it is in the western world and provide effective suggestions for policy makers. Second, it is critical to strengthen examination reform and lighten the overload of students and teachers so as to change schools' and teachers' and students' attitude to examinations and give students more opportunities to participate in a range of activities. Third, as Chen (2002) suggested, 'more time should be allocated to citizenship education, independent of political interpretation, either within a specific course or through cross-curricular dissemination' (p 8). He noted that it might be difficult to increase teaching hours, but it can be achieved by proper curriculum design and curriculum integration. Fourth, changing teaching methods from didactic teaching to interactive teaching could be improved. Teachers can use various methods, and arrange more discussions and researches and interviews and games to develop the skills and positive attitudes required of a citizen. Next, schools can arrange various effective activities within and beyond schools to increase pupils'

practical experience and enhance their practical abilities. Finally, it is also necessary to set citizenship education as a statutory subject into the curriculum to catch up with outside world with many people' efforts.

Countries may share the approaches towards increasing citizenship education, both in policy and approach. However, each country will base this on its own societal and cultural background and values to improve and enlarge its development in citizenship education so as to pursue new millennium.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire (In the target school in England)

This questionnaire is about some approaches to Citizenship education in schools for a comparative study. Your feedback is very important to us. Please take a few moments to complete this questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

Name of School: _____

Age: _____   Male/Female: _____   Date: _____

1. Please tick the boxes below.

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. You are encouraged to make up your own minds about issues of the school				
2. You feel free to disagree openly with your teachers or staffs about political and social and the school issues				
3. You feel free to express opinions in the school even when your opinions are different from most of the other students.				
4. Teachers respect students' opinions and encourage students to express their opinions during classes.				
5. Teachers encourage students to discuss political or social issues about which people have different opinions.				
6. Teachers present several sides of an issue when explaining it in the class.				

2. Please tick the boxes below if you attend any of the following.

You may need to fill in more than one box.

Questions	Yes	No
1. **Do you take part out of school time in a school's sports (art, music, drama, literature…) organization or team?**		
2. **Do you take part in school charity collecting money for a social cause?**		
3. **Do you take part in a student council/union?**		
4. **Do you take part in a school team or group conducting voluntary activities to help the community or people?**		

3. How often do you attend activities of the school organizations or teams mentioned above?

    ☐ Very often   ☐ Often

    ☐ Not often   ☐ Not at all

4. How useful do you feel those activities for building Citizenship education?

    ☐ Very useful   ☐ Useful

    ☐ Not useful   ☐ Neither useful nor not useful

5. Please list some activities you attended and give your comments on them.

Activities	Comments

Thank you for your feedback!

All information will be held in strict confidence.

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire (In the target school in China)

学校公民教育方法问卷调查

学校公民教育是通过学校教育手段和社会活动来培养学生成为合格现代公民，提高学生公民素质的教育。此问卷是为完成一项中外比较研究，针对部分公民教育方法而进行的调查。你的真实地反馈将是非常重要和有价值的，非常感谢你的合作！

学校名称：--

年龄：-----------　　　　　性别：-----------　　　　　日期：--------------------------------

一． 请选择：

问题	从没有（从不）	很少	有时候	经常
1. 对学校存在争议性的问题，你被鼓励去形成自己的看法。				
2. 对于政治问题，社会问题和学校问题，当你和你的老师及学校工作人员有不同见解时，你感觉可以很自由地去坚持你的个人观点。				
3. 在学校里，你感觉很自由地去表达你的观点，甚至当你的观点不同于其他同学时。				
4. 在课堂上，老师尊重学生的观点，并鼓励学生表达他们的观点。				
5. 对于政治问题和社会问题，老师鼓励学生讨论。				
6. 当老师在课堂上解释问题时，他们会对问题的多个方面的争议进行分析说明。				

二．如果你参加了下面任何组织或活动，请划 √ ，可以多选。

问题	参加	没参加
1．在课余时间，你加入学校组织的任何体育（艺术，音乐，戏剧，文学...）小组了吗？		
2．你加入学生会或团组织了吗？		
3．你参加学校组织的为社会捐款活动吗？		
4．你参加学校组织的义务公益活动吗？例如，帮助社区或需要帮助的人。		

三．你经常参加上面提到的组织活动吗？

	几乎每次都参加		经常参加

	不经常参加		不参加

四．认为那些活动对建设公民教育有用吗？

	非常有用		有用

	没用		既不有用，也不没用

五. 请列出你参加过的一些活动，并谈谈你对这些活动的看法。

活动	看法

再次感谢你的合作！你提供的所有信息将对第三方保密。

APPENDIX C

Findings of questionnaires

Table 1. Numbers of responses to 'ethos of the target school' in England

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. You are encouraged to make up your own minds about issues in the school	2	7	15	16
2. You feel free to disagree openly with your teachers or staffs about political and social and the school issues	0	3	18	19
3. You feel free to express opinions in the school even when your opinions are different from most of the other students.	1	3	19	17
4. Teachers respect students' opinions and encourage students to express their opinions during classes.	1	3	14	22
5. Teachers encourage students to discuss political or social issues about which people have different opinions.	0	7	13	20
6. Teachers present several sides of an issue when explaining it in the class.	0	3	17	20

Table 2. Numbers of responses to 'ethos of the target school' in China

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. You are encouraged to make up your own minds about issues in the school	9	12	13	6
2. You feel free to disagree openly with your teachers or staffs about political and social and the school issues	8	16	5	11
3. You feel free to express opinions in the school even when your opinions are different from most of the other students.	2	14	18	6
4. Teachers respect students' opinions and encourage students to express their opinions during classes.	2	3	16	19
5. Teachers encourage students to discuss political or social issues about which people have different opinions.	7	16	13	4
6. Teachers present several sides of an issue when explaining it in the class.	1	7	16	16

Table 3. Numbers of responses to 'organisation of the target school and participation in the target school' in England

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you take part out of school time in a school's sports (art, music, drama, literature...) organization or team?	34	6
2. Do you take part in school charity collecting money for a social cause?	21	19
3. Do you take part in a student council/union?	3	37
4. Do you take part in a school team or group conducting voluntary activities to help the community or people?	7	33

Table 4. Numbers of responses to 'organisation of the target school and participation in the target school' in China

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you take part out of school time in a school's sports (art, music, drama, literature...) organization or team?	4	36
2. Do you take part in school charity collecting money for a social cause?	20	20
3. Do you take part in a student council/union?	36	4
4. Do you take part in a school team or group conducting voluntary activities to help the community or people?	20	20

Table 5. Numbers of the responses to 'activities of the target school' in England

Questions 1	Very often	Often	Not often	Not at all
How often do you attend activities of the school organizations or teams mentioned above?	14	18	6	2
Question 2	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	Neither useful nor not useful
How useful do you feel those activities for building citizenship education?	5	26	3	6

Table 6. Numbers of the responses to 'activities of the target school' in China

Questions 1	Very often	Often	Not often	Not at all
How often do you attend activities of the school organizations or teams mentioned above?	1	14	21	4
Question 2	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	Neither useful nor not useful
How useful do you feel those activities for building citizenship education?	6	23	5	6

APPENDIX D

Summary of Knowledge, Skills and Understanding of Citizenship at

Key Stage 4 (Source: Citizenship Order)

Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens	1. Pupils should be taught about:
	   a legal and human rights, responsibilities of society and the role and operation of the criminal justice system.
	   b the origins and implications of the diverse national, regional, religious and ethnic identities and the need for mutual respect
	   c how parliament makes and shapes the law
	   d the importance of taking an active part in democratic and electoral process
	   e the economy
	   f importance of individuals and group in instigating social change
	   g importance of free press, media's role in society and the internet
	   h rights and responsibilities of consumers, employers and employees
	   i the UK's role in Europe. The Commonwealth and the United Nations
	   j issues, challenges and responsibilities of global interdependence

Developing skills of enquiry and communication	2. Pupils should be taught to:
	   a research a topical issue showing awareness of the use and abuse of statistics
	   b express , justify and explain a personal opinion
	   c contribute to group discussions and formal debates

Developing skills of participation and responsible action	3. Pupils should be taught to:
	   a use their imagination to consider other people's experiences and express and evaluate an opinion that is not their own
	   b take part and responsibility in school and community based activities
	   c reflect on the role of participating

APPENDIX E

The Middle School Guide in the target school in England. These are the page 27 and 28.

Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE)/ Citizenship

The National Curriculum includes a framework for delivering personal, health and social education between the ages 14 and 16. The main areas of this framework are:

1. developing confidence and responsibility and making the most of their abilities;
2. developing a healthier lifestyle, and
3. developing good relationships and respecting the differences between people.

The following is taken from the National Curriculum handbook:

During key stage 4 pupils use the knowledge, skills and understanding that they have gained in earlier key stages and their own experience to take new and more adult roles in school and the wider community. They develop the self-awareness and confidence needed for adult life, further learning and work. They have opportunities to show that they can take responsibility for their own learning and career choices by setting personal targets and planning to meet them. They develop their ability to weigh up alternative courses of action for health and well-being. They gain greater knowledge and understanding of spiritual, moral, social and cultural issues through increased moral reasoning, clarifying their opinions and attitudes in discussions with their peers and informed adults and considering the consequences of their decisions. They learn to understand and value relationships with a wide range of people and gain the knowledge and skills to seek advice about these and other personal issues. They learn to respect the views, needs and rights of people of all ages.

PSHE at King's now runs throughout the Shells and Removes, with additional lessons in the Fifth Form. Each class offers opportunity for discussion and role-play as well as for

more formal sessions. These lessons also include related work on study and learning skills.

For further information on PSHE see www.nc.net.uk .

Citizenship became a National Curriculum subject in August 2002. The National Curriculum guidelines for Citizenship at Key Stage 4 (Removes and Fifths) include

1. knowledge and understanding of the rights and responsibilities of informed citizens: the subject matter of citizenship connects the psychological, the historical, the scientific, the environmental, the linguistic and the cultural to name but a few areas of study

2. developing skills of enquiry and communication: through developing the skills of communication, ICT capability, negotiation, leadership, team working and group decision; and

3. developing skills of participation and voluntary action.

These themes are fulfilled in the curriculum through an interdisciplinary approach. The contribution of each subject to Citizenship is set out in a separate document, "Citizenship at KS4: the inter-disciplinary approach at King's". In addition, some important Citizenship themes are investigated through the discrete PSHE and Critical Thinking programmes. Many opportunities also exist out of class for developing "active" citizenship, for example through participation in meetings of the Middle School Forum, the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme, the Social Services programme as well as through the wider sporting, musical and extra-curricular life of the school.

The National Curriculum criteria for citizenship can be found at www.nc.net.uk

APPENDIX F

Summary of the Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan related to

Citizenship education in China

Ideology and Political Education	It was set out as an important core subject to support citizenship education. Current affair education is the important part of this subject and is carried on through organizing pupils to listen to and watch national and local news.
Physical and Health Education	It was set as a compulsory subject.
National Defense Education, Environment Education, Population Education	They were carried on through different relevant subjects and activities, also through open lectures in some optional subjects.
Social Practice	It was set as a national compulsory lesson, including a research study, work-based technical education(Laodong jishu jiaoyu), community service and social practice.

Note: it is the summary of 'the Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan'(in Chinese 《普通高中课程计划》) related to citizenship education in China. The Ordinary High School Curriculum Plan issued in 2001 by the Ministry of Education (MoE) is an official guide for all High Schools in China.